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MODERN LANGUAGE  
INSTRUCTION IN  
CANADA





Publications of the American and Canadian Committees  
on Modern Languages, Volume VI.

MODERN LANGUAGE  
INSTRUCTION IN  
CANADA

*Canadian Committee on Modern  
Languages*

VOLUME I

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## INTRODUCTION

*"If we could first know where we are, and whither we are tending, we could better judge what to do and how to do it."*—LINCOLN.

### ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF THE INQUIRY

On the initiative of the Carnegie Corporation of New York, a group of modern language teachers met at Atlantic City during the Christmas holidays of 1923-1924 to discuss the need for an inquiry into the teaching of modern languages in the United States. A committee was appointed to undertake such an investigation under the auspices of the American Council on Education; and to a second meeting, held at White Plains, N.Y., in the spring of 1924, a representative from Canada was invited to advise with the American committee on the organization of a similar investigation in Canada. The result was that, after consultation with ministers of education and presidents of Canadian universities, a conference was held at Ottawa on June 9th and 10th. It was attended by representatives from the constituent parts of our educational system—secondary school teachers, inspectors, high school principals, ministers of education, university teachers of graduate and undergraduate courses in French, German, Italian and Spanish. The generous offer of financial assistance from the Carnegie Corporation and of co-operation on the part of the American Council on Education and the American Modern Language

Committee (The Modern Foreign Language Study) was accepted with enthusiasm; it was decided to request the Canadian Conference of Universities to become sponsor for a Canadian committee similar to the American committee, and steps were at once taken to proceed with the preliminary organization. As a result of this conference, and a subsequent one held at Winnipeg in November, a permanent general committee with an executive of five members, regional chairmen, and whole-time investigators, was appointed. Subsequent meetings of the committee were held at Quebec and Toronto, a final conference being held jointly with the American committee in September of 1927.

As the Carnegie Corporation had defined no terms of reference—its policy being not to influence directly the surveys which it finances—the committee drew up the following tentative programme for the inquiry:

1. A thorough, impartial survey of modern language instruction, from elementary to graduate schools:

(a) The position of modern languages with regard to each other and to other subjects.

(b) Methods and text-books.

(c) Examinations.

(d) Library facilities, including co-operation in purchases.

(e) Teaching material.

(f) Training of teachers; native and foreign-born teachers.

(g) Success or failure of present methods, according to

(1) Teachers.

(2) Pupils.

(3) The public.

(h) Historical and statistical survey.

(i) Other investigations, past and present.



2. Consideration of the peculiar position of French in Canada, and of opportunities for the study of French in Quebec.

3. The importance of modern languages in Canada for cultural, scientific, commercial and international purposes.

4. The testing of methods of teaching (in conjunction with the American committee).

5. Psychological or other tests as predetermining ability in modern language study (in conjunction with the American committee).

6. Questionnaires, prepared after consultation with the American investigators.

As the work proceeded, changes had to be made in the methods of conducting the inquiry, and limitations were set on its scope, notably in the matter of experiments. The new technique devised by educational psychologists for carrying on surveys objectively has made obsolete the old procedure of consulting expert opinion; but the instruments for determining achievement in modern languages did not exist or had not been standardized when the investigation began, with the result that the initial efforts of the American and Canadian committees had to be spent on the construction of tests in English (for French-speaking pupils), French, German, Italian and Spanish. The Canadian committee was even placed under the necessity of establishing norms for an intelligence test. The lack of such an instrument for controlling the intelligence variable has hitherto made scholastic experiments in Canada impossible. After the language tests were established, the Canadian committee undertook, as its part of the large co-operative effort, to work them extensively in Canada and Great Britain. The results, when combined with those obtained in the United

States, provide a mass of material for the standardization of the tests themselves and for comparative and statistical data. Thus far tests have been devised for only vocabulary, grammar, reading and composition. Further experimental work is needed to develop tests for oral proficiency and audition. On the latter considerable progress has been made, but to measure oral ability objectively is a more difficult problem.

While of necessity the original programme had to be curtailed, a foundation has been laid for future experimentation on problems of theory and practice that can be solved in no other way. In addition, frequency counts of vocabulary, idiom and syntax, which were undertaken for the preparation of tests, will serve other useful purposes, specifically for sound curriculum construction and the preparation of a new type of text-books and grammars.

The report also contains an analysis of the present status of modern language teaching in Canada under such headings as teacher training, curricula and examinations, historical and statistical data, bibliographical studies and other matter, the purpose of the committee being here, as elsewhere in the report, to analyse and explain rather than to expose and criticize. The committee has no desire to impose a system or a programme, its chief concern being to analyse and interpret present conditions, to consider them historically and scientifically, to discuss dispassionately methods used in Canada and elsewhere, and, especially in the *Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology*, to study progress already made in the investigation of the aims and methods of language learning, and to prepare the way for further quiry and experimentation.

The undertaking has been a vast co-operative enterprise in which large numbers of modern language teachers,

educational psychologists and administrators in Canada, the United States and Great Britain have taken an active part, with the result that larger numbers than ever before are now trained to carry on experimental work, with the further advantage of a better provision of scientific instruments for measuring scholastic achievement, the only satisfactory criterion by which aims, methods, content of text-books, curricula, and theory and practice in general, can be tested and judged. Having in mind the period set for its survey, the committee decided at the outset that its best contribution would be, not hastily conceived practical suggestions and recommendations, but the researches that it could help to inaugurate. The wisdom of this decision is seen already in the large number of investigations which it has directly inspired.

### A SCIENTIFIC SURVEY

Those who are entrusted with an educational survey or the revision of curricula can be expected to do their work in the spirit that prevails at the time of the undertaking. This is at the present time the scientific or experimental tendency. Thanks to Galton, Simon, Binet, and their numerous followers, the educational world of to-day is governed by the statistical psychologist, who insists that problems must be submitted to experiment in such a way that all factors can be controlled. Such a scientific spirit precludes dogmatic assertions where absolute certainty is unattainable, and makes obsolete surveys based on personal opinion, however expert.

The new methods of scientific educational inquiry are based on the quantitative analysis of results obtained from the working of achievement tests, and were first applied extensively to the problems of foreign language learning in *The Classical Investigation* (Princeton, 1924),



and in West's *Bilingualism* (Calcutta, 1926).<sup>1</sup> A glance at these publications, with their tables, graphs, mathematical formulae, and technical vocabulary (quotient, chronological age, coefficient of correlation, mediums, reliability, validity, and so on), reveals the existence of a new, and to some perhaps an uncouth, way of studying pedagogic problems. Though the science is new in its application to foreign language study, it is obvious from a consideration of the large body of literature that already exists on the subject, and the growing use of the new methods, that subjective opinion in educational matters is yielding to conclusions reached by objective experimentation. An interesting part of the classical report is the juxtaposition of replies from teachers on the validity of certain aims and ideals and the results of experiments. The latter, although often incomplete and therefore inconclusive, are disquieting for those who place their trust in time-honoured traditions. The truth of the matter seems to be that most, if not all, of the claims made for the indirect advantages to be derived from the study of languages are valid only when the desirable qualities are stressed and skill in them is consciously developed by good methods or example. West's experiments proclaim the same salutary conclusion, that the theory of education can no longer be based on tradition and authority alone.

As usual, when masses of traditional error are attacked and old tenets discredited, the new science is disparaged in some quarters. An objection that is commonly urged against quantitative analysis as applied to school

<sup>1</sup>Bibliographical details will be found in the *Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology*.—Language achievement tests differ from ordinary examinations, (a) in being more comprehensive, and providing a better sampling of the whole work—including the more common and therefore more useful linguistic phenomena, (b) in testing one thing at a time, (c) in making objective scoring possible, and (d) in providing norms of achievement by years and semesters.

problems is that the higher forms of intellectual or aesthetic achievement are too elusive for objective standards of measurement. Against such an argument it can however be urged that everything that can be taught can be measured, and if these higher forms of achievement elude measurement, it is only because they are not imparted by scholastic endeavour. Inevitably, some of the methods and applications are still in their crude, experimental form, and therefore provoke adverse criticism; but there can be no doubt that the whole educational system is being reorganized on a new basis as a result of a new type of researches.

For West's investigations there was ready at hand the necessary apparatus of tests and frequency word-lists, developed during the past two decades for the study of English. The committee charged with the classical investigation was, like the present modern language committees, compelled to devote most of its energy to the preliminary development of measuring instruments.

The acceptance of this high standard of procedure and the dearth of working tools have made our efforts very largely of a preliminary or preparatory nature. An illustration of this is seen in the committee's attempt to investigate the problem of the most advantageous age for beginning language study. Experiments conducted by the committee, and discussed in a special chapter of the report, show that high school pupils learn languages twice as rapidly as pupils in the junior high school, and that college students excel high school pupils in the same ratio. But important variables like intelligence, motivation, selectivity, teaching methods, curriculum, and so on, could not be eliminated, with the result that the conclusions that might be drawn from the experiments, except in so far as they seem to indicate a definite ten-



dency, are no more reliable than the *a priori* opinion of many people who believe that the earlier language study is begun the better.<sup>1</sup> To solve this fundamental problem alone would require many experiments continued over a period of many years and would presuppose revised objectives, curricula and teaching methods adapted to the ages under observation. Other problems could be cited to show how difficult it is to establish the new curriculum on a sound basis. Many years of experimental work will be needed to sift facts from hypotheses and deductions which so easily satisfy the mind, but rest on no sound foundation when tested by objective experiment.

#### OTHER EDUCATIONAL TRENDS

Other recent tendencies that militate against precipitate and dogmatic conclusions based on subjective deliberation alone are the insistence of modern educationists that, (1) curricula must be based on attainable objectives as determined by experiment; (2) material prescribed for study must have functional value in itself and for life's needs, *i.e.*, we must learn by doing useful things and acquire skills that can be applied. The watchword "function" symbolizes the strong socializing tendency of the pragmatic trend of education; it prescribes useful or practical knowledge; it is the justification for word, idiom and syntax frequency counts, and puts such embarrassing questions as, "What purpose do modern languages serve?" and "How well?" (3) The work of the class-room must be real and must interest the pupils of the age and grade for whom it is

<sup>1</sup>One reason why young children pick up new languages rapidly when living in a foreign environment is that their language habits are not yet so fixed as to interfere with new habits—a good argument for not beginning foreign languages too early in school.

intended. (4) There must be a clearer recognition of the distinction between active and passive knowledge, and minimum essentials, principles which, when applied, will affect the form and content of our grammars and text-books, and especially our examinations. (5) A clearer understanding of the formation of bonds and of the psychological nature of drill, and so on. A glance at our grammars and text-books shows how little psychological processes have been considered in their preparation. (6) Finally, educationists insist upon a better understanding of the fact that values claimed for subjects depend on whether they are, if attainable, recognized and stressed by the teacher.

All these and other trends of modern pedagogy are of very recent origin. Few or none of the underlying principles have been applied to the study of modern languages, because they have been evolved from test results obtained from other subjects, and can only gradually receive general application. Such principles or premises do not imply an impairment of high ideals, but they require that higher standards than are possible under present conditions can only be achieved by improved aims and methods. Researches, such as West has carried out for reading, now determinè the amount, rate and conditions of improvement in reading a foreign language, and demonstrate how practice and improvement can be defined and measured. The new principles and methods have also been applied by investigators like Huey and Uhl to the study of the kind of reading that interests different ages, a fundamental principle that has been wholly overlooked in the prescription of texts for modern languages.

For a whole subject the results of the new pedagogy are best illustrated in Thorndike's *The Psychology of*

*Arithmetic* (New York, The Macmillan Co., 1913) and *The New Methods in Arithmetic* (Chicago, Rand McNally and Co., 1921). As Thorndike puts the matter:

"The examination that really counts is fifty years long; its situations are real things and events; it demands mastery of a few things rather than 60 per cent. efficiency with many. We cannot, of course, duplicate it exactly under schoolroom conditions, but we can make our examinations much more like life than they have been. Examinations, like explanations, drills, definitions, and rules, should be for the learner and for life."

Undesirable applications of arithmetic are illustrated by Thorndike in problems like the following:

"If Alice were two years older than four times her actual age, she would be as old as her aunt, who is 38 years old. How old is Alice? and, Three men walk around a circular island, the circumference of which is 360 miles. A walks 15 miles a day, B 18, C 24. If they start together and walk in the same direction, how many days will elapse before they will be together again?"

The same faulty pedagogy is revealed in the sentences by which our pupils are expected to learn languages. Translate:

"Shall we do wrong to Charles's uncle or to yours if we go to the Millers? No, but where are our hats?" "Are you the man that came this morning whose little daughter is ill?" "There is no meat, but we have some very good cheese, and I am going to buy some bread." "Why did you go to the dining room? Because I was very hungry and hoped to find something to eat."\*

Translating such absurdities, which do not embody ideas which one ever hears expressed by others or has occasion himself to express, can serve no real purpose

\*Examples taken from recent grammars and examination papers.

either for learning to speak or read a foreign tongue, and discredits the subject.

To complicate still further the task undertaken by our committee, there is at the present what the Germans call a "Krisenstimmung" in the science of linguistics itself. Not only etymology, which is beyond the scope of the present inquiry, but language in general and grammar, with which we are concerned more directly, are being reorganized on a psychological basis—or so-called psychological, which is often only comparative and subjective—by Brunot, Jespersen, Meillet, Bally, Vendreys and others. Since about 1914 an extraordinary number of valuable works have appeared dealing with the subject. These innovators substitute for grammar based on logical considerations a classification that is more nearly in accord with the ideas expressed. The Brunot method has been applied recently to French by Frey and Guenot in a *Manuel de langue et de style français*, and *Exercises de langue et de style français* (Paris, Masson, 1926). Phonetics is not indeed a new science, but it is now, more than ever, dependent for development on laboratory experiment, the latest tendency being toward a deeper study of connected speech and intonation.

Contemporary writers on curriculum construction have in mind the large numbers who now seek a liberal education and the demands of innumerable new subjects for recognition. Not only has the school population increased enormously during the past quarter of a century, but the character of pupils has also changed, with a larger number now than ever before of pupils who do not complete their courses. The criterion of subject values is determined in part by aims and functions, but chiefly by the degree in which they are attained, and in which they really contribute to the aims of primary and second-



ary education, which are defined as social, economic and individualistic. No one disputes the direct values of modern languages for the relatively small number of students who study them as a preparation for work at the universities or professional and technical schools. These are special cases. But for the majority who attend our junior and high schools, the onus of proof rests on the modern language teacher. For the present the psychologist is not in a position to prove that any other subject can profitably take the place of language study, but this may be a temporary advantage and is, at best, insecure ground. It may be assumed that in Canada, where, according to the census of 1921, 13 per cent. of the population over ten years of age use French as a sole medium, a good case can be made for the study of French, because of the need for communicating with and understanding our large French-speaking population. But can we prove that for any of our secondary school pupils, outside of the province of Quebec, this aim is ever attained? The methods of teaching that prevail and the nature of our written examinations make one doubt it, and the general public does not believe it. If our objective in the teaching of French is to enable English-speaking pupils to communicate orally with their French-Canadian compatriots, then our methods must make a complete right about face. Whether such an objective can be attained in the class-room, keeping in mind, moreover, that we have to teach large numbers, can only be determined by experiment; and whether it is the only objective for all of our pupils must also be determined.

Modern language enthusiasts have defined the useful purposes served by their subject in the development of commerce and industry, for keeping abreast of progress in science in its broadest application, and for aesthetic



enjoyment. The ability to read at first hand the literatures of other peoples, and to understand and appreciate their spirit and thought, is a powerful instrument well worthy of much effort to acquire. To be able to converse with people of another race is an additional advantage; but modern language teachers must be sure that what they teach achieves the objective set.

To defend the inclusion of a subject in the modern curriculum is not such an easy task as it was formerly, when an easy-going tradition—now of itself suspect—was the chief determining factor. Recently the moderns fought a battle with the Greek and Latin classics, but the struggle for recognition was an easy one, because the arguments that served for the classics were valid for a more modern form of a similar subject, the historic dominance of linguistic and literary studies in education being from the beginning a recognized fact. But for the recognition of moderns there were additional arguments derived from the growing demands of science, commerce and industry, a new interest in international relations, the increase in travel, and the conviction that the civilization, literature and history of the great nations of to-day were neglected in comparison with the disproportionate time devoted in our schools to the ancient classics.

New tendencies have arisen which modify the position of moderns considerably. The laboratory sciences, vocational preparation, training in citizenship, are some of the subjects which indicate a reaction from the merely formal aspects of education in favour of realism and an adjustment of the individual to his actual environment, and mark also the growing conviction that secondary schools, from which only a small number graduate into the universities, have a function of their own to perform, a function that languages, which require much pre-

liminary training that can no longer be justified as "disciplinary", may not serve as well as other subjects. There is also a growing interest in the study of English, the strongest rival at present of our subject. The moderns can still offer much that is not learned through the study of English alone. They can, if properly taught, produce a broadening of interest by enlarging experience; they can provide a valuable basis of comparison with phenomena of our own language, customs, and literature, and can do something to combat a tendency toward provincialism and extreme nationalism. They are the only means by which a first-hand knowledge can be obtained of modern history and the literature, life and institutions of the great modern nations. For many, they are now, with English, the only humanistic studies. The importance of *Modern Studies*, the report of an English committee on modern languages, lies in its insistence on a broad concept of modern language teaching. No ideal can reach more than a qualified fulfilment, but it is well for modern language teachers to ponder the pages of this report and try by conscious effort to attain the ideals there set forth.

Educationists accept our claims for direct values and only ask whether the objectives are attained in the classroom. It is, however, the indirect values that they question most critically. They do not now accept the assumption that valuable general abilities are developed through training in specific fields. They seem to admit that improved efficiency, as derived from the mastery of the grammar, language and sounds of a foreign language, can be transferred, and that pupils usually get their first grasp of English grammar from the study of the construction of a foreign tongue. They also grant that certain other mental processes can be developed by

conscious effort, but they discredit as transfer values such traditional claims as the training of reason, logic, concentration, the power of observation, and improved skill in writing English. The point which psychologists make is that these qualities can be developed more easily and satisfactorily by more direct efforts; that practice in one kind of learning may facilitate, but may also inhibit, other kinds of learning; and that desirable methods, ideals and attitudes must be identified first, and then emphasized by the teacher—they do not belong to a subject *per se*.

In a vast country like Canada it is idle to hope or even to desire that all the provinces or the schools of city and country should adopt the same objectives or adhere to the same methods. On general principles there must always be variable standards in so complex a subject as modern languages. In some parts of the country, and for clearly defined purposes, greater stress will always be laid on oral proficiency. Elsewhere attention will be concentrated on the development of reading ability.

Consideration of the proper objectives need not be involved, however, in the more difficult pedagogic problem of what is the best approach to the learning of languages for all purposes. The point that alone needs emphasis here is that merely because the modern languages represent living speech in Europe or Quebec is not a sufficient reason for restricting their study to those who can or may expect to make practical use of them. Access through reading to modern literatures and thought may for many people be sacrificed for the sake of the few who come into contact with foreigners or the French-speaking people of Canada. It is extraordinary what a body of opinion in Europe and elsewhere has swung around to the conviction here expressed. It has been in-

fluenced, of course, by the realization that the actual achievement of the class-room, even where, as in certain parts of Canada, conditions seem to be most favourable, falls short of the goal set by enthusiasts, and all to the neglect of *attainable* objectives. Whatever other purpose the study of modern languages may serve, they must contribute to the education of the pupils who study them.

The fundamental difficulty involved in determining our objectives lies in the effort to reconcile instruction in the use of living languages with the imparting of a liberal education. The old procedure, which did not at all seek to fathom the true nature of the problem, but borrowed its methods from the teaching of the classics, confined its attention to the learning of formal grammar and the deciphering of difficult texts. This method still prevails in Canada, and is encouraged by our system of written examinations. A recent visitor to our schools comments critically on the hiatus between the learning of grammatical forms and their application. The "reform" or oral method shows its influence in Canada chiefly in more attention to pronunciation. Only in one province is the method applied extensively and under proper supervision. The defects that arise there can be corrected. They consist chiefly of a failure to reach the expected development in range of vocabulary owing to a sacrifice in the amount of reading. Hence, also, there is probably a starving of intellectual interest.

The committee's researches do not enable them to prescribe a new curriculum, but they are unanimous in their opinion, based on observation of present conditions and on the results obtained by West, that our schools could make more progress under present circumstances by stressing reading ability (see below, p. xxxviii, under Recommendations). This is in harmony with a sound



principle in educational thought to-day, namely, that it is more profitable to attain one objective by intensive effort than to strive for many and fail to reach that degree of mastery which alone encourages further effort and arouses a desire to give the ability acquired practical application. Ideal objectives have been set up for modern languages in Canada and other countries that have disregarded actual conditions of the class-room, with the inevitable discouragement of pupil and teacher, disappointment on the part of the public, and a general disparagement of the subject. For the vast majority of our high school population (less than 50 per cent. of our pupils reach the third year), an introductory course of two years with a minimum of grammar and translation and a maximum of reading would lead to the attainment of a reasonable objective, the ability to read, which in turn would awaken in the pupil a desire to pursue the study. What children really like is not a constant struggle with insurmountable difficulties that retard progress unnecessarily and serve no obvious purpose or end (except to pass examinations), but mastery of a subject and a sense of achievement, a feeling that in the long run provides better so-called discipline than was the case under the old classical ideal when such powerful motives for learning as interest and enthusiasm were sacrificed. Certain it is that at present an excessive amount of time is devoted to modern languages in relation to the results obtained.

We have discarded some of the methods and objectives inherited from the teaching of the ancient classics, but have failed to establish satisfactory aims and methods of our own. Compared with the older languages, the scope of modern languages is vaster; they represent a living present as well as an historical past. Moreover the



fact that the languages are living, spoken idioms of to-day and have therefore practical significance has helped greatly to confuse the issue. In an environment which sets up constant linguistic interference, and in crowded class-rooms which at most give each pupil oral practice of two minutes a day, we have tried (unsuccessfully) to teach proficiency in the spoken tongue. On the other hand, we have used literary material for dull linguistic analysis (instead of for aesthetic appreciation, the development of taste and literary judgment), and for practice in translation, which neither improves the pupil's English nor his command of the foreign language, and does not, moreover, lead to profitable mental activity or the enjoyment of foreign literature for its own sake, because grammar, not reading, habits have been formed. So much attention has been given to language (usually grammatical) study that only for advanced students at the universities do the foreign languages serve as a means to an end: the appreciation of literature and a knowledge of a foreign people's history, culture and civilization. In other words, because the subject is a complex one, we have sought to embrace too much, have failed to distinguish the separate aims and methods of language and literary study, have sought to teach colloquial speech through the literary medium instead of the vernacular, and have failed consequently to attain reasonable proficiency in any one of the major objectives of modern language study: to speak, read, write or understand a foreign tongue.

#### HISTORY OF THE RECOGNITION OF MODERN LANGUAGES

Since about the middle of the 18th century the ancient classics have been definitely dethroned from the dominating position which they held in the educational system

during the middle ages and the renaissance, when they were regarded as the proper and sole content of higher education and, as a logically organized science (grammar), which we now know language is not, as an indispensable discipline for the education of youth. The rapid progress made by education since the school curriculum was broadened has justified the change, but even as late as 1861, Gladstone, according to *Modern Studies*, maintained that classical training was paramount, because its materials had been advisedly and providentially prepared in order that it might become the complement of Christianity in the culture of the human being both for this world and for the world to come.

The extraordinary development of modern literatures in the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries, and a growing literary consciousness that questioned the claims of classical teachers who maintained the superior excellence of ancient writers; a reluctance to sacrifice native speech to Latin; the growing need for a more flexible vehicle of expression than classical Latin; a feeling that the old curriculum had become antiquated as a training for modern life; a consciousness among educators like Comenius (1592-1671) that the native language, not Latin, was the most useful implement for education; the popularization of literature through printed books; the rise of the press, and with it a better knowledge of foreign affairs; the development of nationalism and antiquarian or archaeological interests in past history; the founding of national libraries where manuscripts and printed books were made accessible to scholars; the revival of learning and the inclusion of scientific studies in universities; a general broadening of interests; vast colonial expansion—these and other factors made a knowledge of modern languages for other than diplomatic,

court, or courier purposes, or as a polite accomplishment, indispensable. The French Revolution with its disrupting effect on traditions; the growth of democracy; romanticism in its final victory over classicism, and a proper recognition of medieval and modern literatures; the works of Dante, Rabelais, Cervantes, Calderón, Corneille, Racine, Molière; the birth of the new science of comparative philology—these were additional influences which won for modern studies a place in university, and later in secondary school, curricula. In Germany modern languages had made their way into gymnasia by the end of the 16th century; a college founded by Richelieu in 1640 provided for French, Italian and Spanish; in the 18th century French military schools attached great importance to the study of modern languages. The general recognition of the subject belongs, however, to the 19th century.

Throughout most of the 19th century philological and historical aspects of language study predominated at continental universities. Critical editions of medieval texts, dictionaries, etymological and other linguistic studies poured from the presses as classical works did in the days of the renaissance. A solid foundation was thus laid for modern language learning as a scholarly subject worthy of inclusion in any university calendar. The development of phonetics as an exact science during the last decades of the century awakened a new zeal for living speech, and with the demands of modern commerce, industry and science prepared the way for reformed methods of instruction. For practical purposes and for the improvement of modern language teaching in secondary schools, universities now began to make provision for oral practice. For the same reason, and as a reaction from an exclusive preoccupation with medieval and classical

literature, courses in more modern writers were provided. Dilettanti, using the word in a favourable sense, have from the beginning protested against an exclusively scientific attitude toward literature, and their remonstrances have within recent years effected a growing interest in moderns as a humanistic study, so that it can now be maintained that the modern languages offer well-rounded courses that provide for aesthetic, practical, and scientific training, and all that is implied in a liberal education.

In all these movements a young country like Canada followed rather than led. Nevertheless it is well to recall here the names of the pioneers who made the recognition of modern studies possible. The renaissance, which marks off the new world from the old, aroused a taste for, and bold delight in, the beautiful, and created a zest for discoveries, physical as well as intellectual. But with few exceptions, notably the Collège de France, some Jesuit and Oratorian colleges, the universities of Alcalá de Henares and Salamanca (and then only for a brief period), the spirit of humanism was sternly repressed at colleges and universities, which stagnated in inertia and sloth, victims of deadening formalism, until toward the end of the 18th century, when intellectual life was restored to them by the secularization of learning—the work of lay individuals, academies and learned societies, true torch-bearers of the post-renaissance period. For the medieval university, logic, including grammar which was the principal subject for “logical” analysis, formed the educational staple; in the universities quickened by the renaissance, the Latin and Greek classics took its place, but in a pedantic way that did not reflect the true spirit of humanism, which survived rather in the expansion of vernacular literatures. In the new universities of the



19th century appreciation of literature again came into vogue.

In 1716 the newly organized Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres set as one of its purposes the "éclaircissements sur divers points de l'histoire du moyen âge, particulièrement de celle de notre monarchie, de nos premiers poètes, de nos vieux romanciers et d'autres auteurs." Lacurne de Ste.-Palaye (died 1781) was one of the most active French students and writers on medieval literatures during the 18th century. In Spain there were learned pioneers like Aldrete, who published a philological work, *Del origen de la lengua castellana* (1606), in which he distinguished between Roman popular speech and the Latin literary language, and studied the development of the Romance languages; Nicholas Antonio, who published a *Bibliotheca nova* (1672), or encyclopaedia of old Spanish writers; and Sánchez (1732-1798) who made accessible from manuscripts old Spanish literary masterpieces in a *Colección de poesías castellanas anteriores al siglo XV* (1779). In Italy Muratori led the way in his studies on Italian history and literature.

But it was at the German and Austrian universities, which gave a new aim to universities—erudition—that the greatest impulse was given to modern studies by scholars like W. V. Schlegel, with his epoch-making *Vorlesungen über dramatische Kunst*, 1803 (printed in 1809; translated into French, Italian and English, and popularized by Mme. de Staël) and F. V. Schlegel with his *Geschichte der alten und neuen Litteratur* (1812). The science of historical and comparative linguistics was founded by Bopp. The new methods were applied to German by J. Grimm and to the Romance languages by Diez. The latter began his work at Bonn in 1821, and trained a famous band of scholars who in Germany and abroad established firmly



the literary and philological study of the Romance languages.

### THE MODERN LANGUAGES STUDIED

The total enrolment in languages in secondary schools, exclusive of the French schools of Quebec, was, approximately, in 1926:

French.....	96,334
German.....	2,826
	<hr/>
	99,160
Latin.....	72,270

From these figures it will be seen that the language chiefly taught in Canada is French. French shows a higher enrolment than Latin in all the provinces, but the difference is most marked in the West. Spanish is taught in about ten schools in Ontario, but is not offered elsewhere except in a few private schools, commercial schools, and in some of the universities. Attendance in German, which is taught in five provinces, but outside of Ontario chiefly in the universities, fell off rapidly during the war, recovered about one third of its former enrolment by 1921, declined again, but seems now to be gradually recovering some of the ground lost. The increase in high school attendance, which has been a marked feature of the past decade, has forced upon school boards such considerable expenditures on buildings and additional teachers that they are reluctant to encourage subjects in which the attendance is small.

For purposes of comparison the enrolment in languages in the United States is here given (figures are only available for 1925):

French.....	359,219
German.....	32,870
Spanish.....	253,397
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Total.....	645,486
Latin.....	611,680

The enrolment in Italian is not available, but approximates about 2,000 pupils, mostly the children of native Italians in the large cities. As compared with the figures for Canada, the most striking difference is in the enrolment in Spanish, which, as in Germany, and to some extent in Great Britain, has been taken up with extraordinary enthusiasm during the past fifteen years.

The number of people speaking the languages taught is approximately as follows:

## FRENCH

Europe.....	42,000,000
Canada and the United States.....	3,000,000
Miscellaneous (North Africa, colonies).....	1,000,000
<hr/>	
	46,000,000

## GERMAN

Europe (Germany, Austria, Hungary, Switzerland, Baltic Provinces).....	71,000,000
North and South America.....	4,000,000
<hr/>	
	75,000,000

## ITALIAN

Europe (Italy, Switzerland).....	37,000,000
North America.....	2,000,000
South America.....	1,000,000
Africa.....	500,000
<hr/>	
	40,500,000

## SPANISH

Spain.....	18,000,000
Central and South America.....	44,386,000
Miscellaneous(Turkey, North Africa, colonies)	8,500,000
	<hr/>
	70,886,000

These languages, all members of the great Indo-European family, represent the living speech of the civilized countries of to-day, and give access to the most advanced thought in science, religion, legal and constitutional procedure, politics, economics, and the richest and most beautiful literatures. They, with English, are spoken in most of Europe, America, and large portions of Asia, Africa and Oceania, and are distinguished by a vitality that keeps extending their domain and influence.

The Romance languages (French, Italian and Spanish) represent the results of Roman colonization. Spanish is the language of the Peninsula (with Portuguese and Catalan), South and Central America (except Brazil), including the Antilles, a large part of California, Arizona, New Mexico and Texas, the northern shores of Africa, and, as spoken by the Sephardi Jews, of large parts of Turkey and the Levant. Italian has extended its domain beyond the confines of Italy to Tunisia, and is represented in America by important colonies established in the Argentine, the United States and Canada. French is the language of France, parts of Belgium and Switzerland, and is spoken in Canada, parts of the United States, notably in the New England States and Louisiana, in African and Asiatic possessions, and has long been the auxiliary language of educated people of Europe, Egypt and Asia Minor. In Mediterranean ports there is spoken a mixture of Romance languages known as "sabir" or "lingua franca".

German (high, middle and low) is the language of Germany, Austria, Hungary, parts of France (Alsace), Roumania, Russia, Switzerland, and is also spoken extensively in South and North America (as German, "Pennsylvania-Dutch", and Yiddish). One special dialect, Yiddish (Jüdisch), is spoken in Lithuania, Poland, Russia, and in North America—New York City alone having a population of over one million Yiddish-speaking Jews.

### FOR THE INEXPERIENCED TEACHER

For the beginner, who may be bewildered by the material presented in this report and the accompanying section on bibliography, a selection of representative books and journals is here offered, together with other information and a few remarks on teaching.

So long as the doctrine of formal discipline (supposed to be inherent in language study) was uppermost in the minds of educators, the teacher's equipment did not need to be extensive. If he could drill his pupils in paradigms and help them to translate sentences and prescribed texts, he served his purpose. This discredited doctrine is responsible for our bookless schools, as well as for the failure of many of our teachers to seek improvement by study or travel abroad.

Mere gerund-grinding, translating, or conversing about trivial subjects do not represent a high ideal in language instruction. The range is too pathetically limited, and precludes moreover a knowledge of the literature, history and intellectual development of foreign nations. Teacher and pupil must at the outset realize that languages are instruments for the acquisition of higher learning. They must, therefore, have access to histories, geographies, pictures, maps, and representative



masterpieces of foreign literatures. Much of this equipment for high school libraries or study rooms can be procured in forms that will appeal to the pupil himself, if only he is given access to it. To have him feel that he is learning languages with nothing higher in view than a mastery of elementary grammar and the reading of a few simple texts, robs his work of a powerful incentive. He should have opportunities for applying his knowledge to unprescribed books.

What is technically known as "transfer" depends (1) on how pupils are taught, and (2) on the nature of of the subject matter. The useful purposes which a knowledge of modern languages can serve have been dwelt on in previous sections. The point has also been stressed that these purposes can be attained chiefly by a conscious effort on the part of the teacher to analyse and define them, and especially by calling them to the attention of immature minds.

There is a tendency to require pupils to learn paradigms and grammatical rules independently of the activities which they are expected to assist. Paradigms like *aime, aimes, aime, aimons*, and so on, have no independent existence in language. The Frenchman knows them only as *jèm, tuèm, ilèm*, etc. For the sake of correct pronunciation and intonation, as also for drill in their application (their only function), and to encourage creative effort on the part of the pupil, paradigms should be taught from the beginning in complete phrases or sentences, as *nous aimons nos livres, aime-t-il Jeanne, mon frère ne parle pas français*, etc. Only so much theory should be taught in a lesson as can be applied.

Even where the direct method is not used, much can be done to improve the pupil's powers of audition and oral proficiency by teaching with closed books. After

the grammatical problem has been explained, instead of having the pupil translate exercises from the printed page, he can be asked to illustrate the new principle in complete sentences, created by himself in imitation of the sentences provided in the text-book. If necessary, key words can be supplied by the teacher. By this method translation can be avoided, and need be resorted to only occasionally as a test of accuracy.

More attention should be given to training the ear. This organ needs training in hearing the foreign language as much as do the vocal organs in reproducing sounds. Dictation is one means of accomplishing this purpose, but for regular class-room practice, words, or better still, phrases, sentences and whole passages should be read to the pupils, either by individual students or by the teacher. Much of the time now given to translation can be saved by asking pupils for their difficulties, questioning them about the content of paragraphs and the meaning of sentences or words which they may misinterpret without the aid of the teacher. The time so saved can be devoted to oral practice and reading aloud.

In moderns, written examinations react powerfully and detrimentally on methods. But merely because the written examination cannot measure attainment in essential characteristics of living speech is not a sufficient reason for neglecting audition and oral practice, all the more so as they are powerful aids to the learning of languages, even for written examinations. The wise teacher will defer practice in translation until the final year of the course, and then only as a preparation for the kind of examination that now prevails.

The significance of a piece of foreign literature can best be realized by the pupil when it becomes correlated to experience in his own life or reading. The French

method known as "explication de textes" cannot be applied in detail in our class-rooms, but its insistence on the form as well as the content of literature should be noted by the instructor and emphasized in his teaching.

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1911. \$5.00.

ADDRESSES

*Phonograph Records*<sup>1</sup>

Otto Sperling, Eberhardstrasse, Stuttgart, Germany.  
Student Educational Records, Lakewood, N.J.

*Lantern Slides*

Presbyterian Publications, Church and Gerrard Streets,  
Toronto, Ont.

*Achievement Tests*

World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.  
J. M. Dent & Sons, Toronto, Ont.

*Foreign Book Dealers*<sup>2</sup>

Picard Fils, 82 rue Bonaparte, Paris.

<sup>1</sup>See also the *Annotated Bibliography* under *Language*.

<sup>2</sup>Foreign books and periodicals can usually be obtained through local dealers and university book stores. For subscriptions to journals and newspapers consult the catalogue published by Wm. Dawson: Subscription Service, Montreal, Toronto, Vancouver, Winnipeg.

J. Terquem, 14 rue Séguire, Paris.

O. Harrasowitz, 14 Querstrasse, Leipzig.

O. Lange, 132 via Sarragli, Florence.

V. Suárez, 48 Preciados, Madrid.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The encouragement of research and experimental work, especially in teacher training colleges. Existing colleges should be reorganized to this end and placed under the control of university psychological or educational departments so as to ensure that experimentation will in future become one of their active functions. Where new colleges or departments are established they should be closely connected with universities which can control their policy and make appointments. Such colleges or departments should be provided with adequate facilities in books, scientific publications and apparatus. The committee does not find that any training college in Canada is now engaged in experimental work in modern languages.

2. The establishment of a modern language journal to publish the results of experimental investigations and to keep teachers abreast of progress made in modern language teaching. The lack of a national organization in Canada makes the founding of such a publication difficult. The committee had planned to begin such a journal, which would at the same time lay the foundation for a national organization, but the undertaking was discouraged by the National Conference of Canadian Universities whose sanction was sought. The plan proposed included the appointment of an editorial board, one member of which was to be replaced each year by the subscribers to the journal, thus ensuring ultimate control of the publication by the teachers. It was hoped

that funds could be found to carry the publication over the difficult initial stage. As the reply received from the secretary of the Conference of Canadian Universities contains a promise, it is published here in full:

"The request of the Canadian Committee, which is conducting a survey of the teaching of modern languages, that the National Conference of Canadian Universities give its approval to and, in a sense, stand sponsor for a journal dealing with modern languages was considered and reported upon at the Executive Committee.

"Two aspects of the question raised are:

"(a) Whether favourable action taken by the Conference would be, in any sense, effective for your purpose and,

"(b) Whether, in any case, favourable action should be taken in the case of one proposed journal when later similar questions may be raised with respect to journals in other subjects.

"The Executive and the Conference feel that it is inadvisable to take any action in connection with an individual journal, pending the adoption of a comprehensive policy on the larger question of the attitude of the Conference towards Canadian journals of scholarship and research. It was felt that it should first evolve a satisfactory policy relating to such journals as might come up for consideration in order that all of the departments of scholarship might be given impartial treatment.

"I trust that this action of the Conference may in no way impede your progress in connection with the establishment of a modern language journal."

3. The establishment of a laboratory for experimental work in phonetics. This could serve for the scientific study of general linguistic problems as well as for specific

problems of French pronunciation and bilingualism, for which Canada offers unusual advantages.

4. The appointment of modern language supervisors in cities and counties (or groups of counties) whose duties it will be to determine the nature of the work advisable under local conditions, to provide syllabi, to direct and appoint (or nominate) teachers and supervise the work. Needless to say such supervisors must be exceptionally well trained in linguistic science, and must be interested in experimentation. The benefits to be derived from the appointment of supervisors of modern language instruction are dealt with in the committee's report on the Montreal and Cleveland systems.

5. (a) The creation of modern language libraries in secondary schools for pupils and teachers. Such libraries should contain, besides reference books (dictionaries, histories of art, literature and institutions), at least one current periodical for each language, and a selection of interesting books chosen so as to encourage pupils to do supplementary or private reading. Model collections for school libraries should be kept on display in training colleges, which could from time to time publish lists of books (with prices). With the exception of one or two schools, such libraries are now non-existent. There should likewise be better equipment in our schools of maps and phonetic charts.

(b) The following statistics (compiled in 1925) show that the libraries of many Canadian universities are inadequate:



Libraries	French	Germ.	Ital.	Span.	Rom.	Teut.	Total.	Annual Appropriation
<i>A</i>	7112	5699	3513	2937	399	539	20199	\$2250
<i>B</i>	4000	1500	100	600	100	50	6350	\$ 275
<i>C</i> (1926)	1944	1785	667	685	374		5455	\$ 500
<i>D</i>	1200	1960	135	40	15	85	3435	\$ 240
<i>E</i>	1602	1529	55	30	13	69	3298	\$ 400
<i>F</i>	1011	1206	53	149			2419	\$ 100
<i>G</i>	1222	575	175	307	5	120	2404	\$ 300
<i>H</i>	1100	550					1650	\$ 200
<i>I</i>	1000		100				1100	
<i>J</i>	600	427	40	20			1087	" No definite appropriation "
<i>K</i>	500	250	75	90			915	\$ 460
<i>L</i>	395	373	23	40			831	\$ 70
<i>M</i>								\$ 30

6. The establishment by provincial departments of education of travelling scholarships for teachers. Such bursaries are now granted by a few provinces, and have well justified the expenditure of money. One Canadian university, recognizing the peculiar difficulty of modern language teachers in keeping in touch with their subject, makes an annual grant of \$600 to three modern language teachers on its staff who go abroad during the summer vacation.

7. A transfer of emphasis from grammar to reading. The committee's researches do not enable them to prescribe a new curriculum, but they are unanimous in their opinion, based on observation of present conditions and on the results obtained by West, that our schools could make more progress under present circumstances by stressing reading ability. For this they can offer negative and positive arguments. Some of these are briefly as follows:

(a) It is futile now to learn languages for languages' sake; there must be a functional purpose to serve.

(b) The class-room cannot reproduce normal conditions for the training of the ability to speak; there is

generally too great an interference of English to justify the effort; the language taught is literary in vocabulary and construction, and not the vernacular of real life.

(c) The time allowed for language work is too limited for the purpose; in a class of thirty pupils, meeting four times a week in thirty-minute periods, there is a maximum of about four or five minutes per week in which the pupils can use the language, and that allows no time whatsoever for hearing it. If class-room exercises are done in unison, there is, of course, more time for practice than these figures indicate, but at most there is no equivalent offered in the class-room for the ample time that the native child has for developing the use of his mother tongue.

(d) As compared with Europe, and excepting only Quebec and other parts of Canada where French is spoken, we live in linguistic isolation.

On the positive side and in favour of reading there are the following arguments:

(a) Reading is the natural process by which we learn all other scholastic subjects; it is the normal condition that prevails in the class-room and that is continued in real life; reading is possible under most unfavourable conditions, and practice in it need not cease when the pupil no longer hears the foreign tongue.

(b) It makes available almost immediately material that conduces to intellectual development; "Realienkunde," now discredited generally, even in Germany where it began, cannot take the place of a study of the masterpieces of literature, as it cannot give an adequate idea of the real life of the people whose language is being studied.

(c) The ability to read can be developed rapidly in the class-room, as West has shown, and the skill

developed is carried over to reading in the native language.

(*d*) For many pupils a reading knowledge is sufficient; for all it ought to be a basic achievement.

(*e*) Because reading can be developed, we have an objective that can be attained under the adverse circumstances now prevalent—teachers themselves having little or no opportunity to practise oral proficiency.

(*f*) Reading, if taught with due regard to pronunciation, prepares a grounding for the development of other language uses by providing a vocabulary and a feeling for foreign idiom.

(*g*) Reading provides better deferred or surrender values after a minimum period of study—the lot of the majority of our students—than mere knowledge of pronunciation plus grammar or a small amount of skill in speaking the foreign tongue.

By reading is meant the ability to comprehend ideas expressed in a foreign language, which is different from the study of a language for the sake of grammatical analysis or for so-called translation. The kind of reading which the committee has in mind presupposes a new type of grammars and elementary reading texts. Their nature is set forth by West, and his new readers can serve as models.

8. The publication of modern language text-books in Canada. This could be encouraged if departments of education desisted from prescribing specific texts, a practice peculiar to Canada. There is needed especially a series of well-graded elementary text-books and grammars. The editing of such books and others would stimulate teachers, and would for this reason alone be justified.

9. Modern languages demand of teachers a training

in pronunciation that cannot be learned from books alone. It is therefore recommended that teachers of modern languages should have their qualification indicated plainly on their certificates, and that no persons without such certificates should be permitted to teach modern languages.

10. Written examinations have become a fetish in the Canadian educational system. They determine the nature of class-work even more than curricular prescriptions. In modern languages they encourage excessively the grammar-translation method. The committee, therefore, recommends that the nature and effect of our examination system should be subjected to a scientific investigation. Meanwhile, the new-type of examination described in the present report should be tried side by side with the old, not only because it is more comprehensive and reliable, but because it does not encourage the exercise-translation method.

11. As a result of the grammar-translation method encouraged by the written examination, there is a prevailing disregard of pronunciation in the schools. It is recommended, therefore, that steps be taken to encourage the development of oral-aural ability in the class-room.

#### LIST OF MEMBERS OF THE CANADIAN COMMITTEE ON MODERN LANGUAGES (1924-1928)

##### *General Committee*

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- Mr. W. C. Ferguson, Associate Professor of Methods in French and German, Ontario College of Education, Toronto, Ont.; *Member of the Executive Committee.*
- Mr. R. H. Fife, Professor of German, Columbia University, New York, N.Y.; *Chairman of the Modern Foreign Language Study.*
- Mr. E. L. Fuller, Inspector of Schools, Wetaskiwin, Alta.
- Mrs. C. Roy Greenaway, 76 Alexandra Blvd., Toronto; formerly Head of the Department of Modern Languages, Davenport High School.
- Mr. J. H. Heinzelmann, Professor of German, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Man.
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- Mr. J. A. Macdonald, Professor of French, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Sask.
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- Mr. G. W. Parmelee, Director of Protestant Education, Dept. of Public Instruction, Quebec, Que.; *Member of the Executive Committee.*
- Mr. J. F. Raiche, Associate Professor of French, University of St. Francis Xavier, Antigonish, N.S.

Miss M. Ross, formerly Instructor in French, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B.C.

Mr. L. P. Shanks, Professor of Romance Languages, University of Western Ontario, London, Ont.; Professor of French, Johns Hopkins University, 1925-.

Mr. J. E. Shaw, Professor of Italian and Spanish, University of Toronto, Ont.; *Secretary*.

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Mr. P. Rogers, formerly Professor of Modern Languages, Acadia University, Wolfville, N.S.; *Member* 1924-1926.

Mr. Roy Ross, Professor of German, Acadia University, Wolfville, N.S.; *Member* 1926-.

Mr. I. B. Rouse, Modern Language Teacher, Provincial Normal School, Fredericton, N.B.

Mr. J. H. Blanchard, Modern Language Teacher, Prince of Wales College, Charlottetown, P.E.I.

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Mr. A. J. Husband, Principal of the Collegiate Institute, Brockville, Ont.; Inspector of High Schools, 1926-; *Chairman*.

Miss Jessie Muir, Modern Language Teacher, Ottawa Collegiate Institute, Ottawa, Ont.

Miss M. I. Whyte, Modern Language Teacher, North Bay Collegiate Institute, North Bay, Ont.

Mr. E. S. Hogarth, Modern Language Teacher, Hamilton Collegiate Institute, Hamilton, Ont.

Mr. Neil R. Gray, Modern Language Teacher, Collegiate Institute, London, Ont.

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Mr. W. Atherton, Professor of English Literature, Faculty of Literature, Montreal University, Montreal, Que.

Mr. D. C. Logan, Assistant Secretary, Protestant Board School Commission, Montreal, Que.

Mr. J. V. Desaulniers, Member of Central Board, Catholic School Commission, Montreal, Que.

Abbé Henri Jasmin, Professor of Modern Languages,  
Faculty of Literature, Montreal University,  
Montreal, Que.

Special Investigators

Mr. H. E. Ford, Professor of French, Victoria College,  
Toronto, Ont.

Miss Léa E. Tanner, Supervisor of French in English  
Schools, Montreal, Que. (1925-1926).

Mr. R. K. Hicks, Associate Professor of French, Queen's  
University; Professor of French, Trinity College,  
University of Toronto, 1927-; Member of the  
General Committee, 1925-1926; Special Investi-  
gator, 1926-1927.

Supervisor of Achievement Tests

Mr. V. A. C. Henmon, Head of the Department of  
Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison,  
Wis.; Professor of Education, Yale University,  
1926-1927; Professor of Psychology, University  
of Wisconsin, 1927-.



# AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF MODERN LANGUAGE METHODOLOGY<sup>1</sup>

## *Introduction*

### METHODS OF INSTRUCTION IN MODERN LANGUAGES

Methods of instruction in modern languages were until recent years imitated from the teaching of Latin, a subject that completely dominated the curriculum until about 1700, and which still keeps guard over matriculation into most universities, as the time-honoured prerogative of "grammar." In the middle ages, Latin was still a living language, and as such capable of growth by absorbing new words and constructions from vernacular speech. It had a practical value and was an indispensable medium for thought and intercourse with others, especially in diplomacy, the courts, the church, schools and universities. It was in fact the common vehicle of all

<sup>1</sup>This bibliography, prepared by the Canadian Committee in collaboration with Professor E. D. MacPhee of the Department of Psychology of the University of Toronto, is a joint undertaking with the Modern Foreign Language Study. As the title indicates, it is an analytical survey of the subject, planned to give in brief compass a review of the best contributions to the science of language learning and teaching, and intended to serve as a basis for further researches and experimentation. For convenience of reference, the bibliography is divided into sections, under which items are arranged in chronological order. These sections are not mutually exclusive. Abbreviations used for titles of journals are self-explanatory, or can easily be identified in the *Union List of Serials in Libraries of the United States and Canada* (p. 83). Prices quoted for books can only be considered approximate; they usually represent net cost at Toronto. Thanks are gratefully tendered to Professor MacPhee for his generous collaboration, and to Mrs. A. H. Young and Mrs. W. J. McLelland for valuable assistance as readers.

knowledge down to the 16th and 17th centuries when the vernacular languages took its place.

Like a mother tongue Latin was acquired in a practical way by hearing and speaking, and was developed by reading. Instruction in the schools and universities before the invention of printing was largely oral, as were examinations or disputations. The pupil lived in a Latin-speaking atmosphere in which there was abundant opportunity for self-expression in the interminable controversies and discussions which formed such an essential part of medieval instruction. The popular treatise on grammar by Donatus, *De octo Partibus Orationis* (or Priscian's similar work), was a brief compendium that could be learned by heart (as was almost everything else in the medieval school) and included only the essential facts of morphology and syntax. Later the equally brief *Doctrinale* of Villedieu, written in doggerel, became popular. Grammar, "the empress of the liberal arts," was an important subject, including as it did rhetoric and logic—the educational staple of the middle ages—but the study of formal grammar in and for itself was a development of the renaissance and the systematists of the 17th and 18th centuries.

The medieval Latin that was read by youth, as, for example, in popular works like the *Disticha Catonis* (the universal primer of the middle ages), the *Gesta Romanorum* or the *Legenda Aurea*, did not differ greatly from the spoken language.<sup>1</sup> Then came humanism during the

<sup>1</sup>The first reader used in the schools was the Latin Psalter, followed by the books just mentioned and model letters, then by writing, a study of the rules logic, rhetoric, and finally the classics, Virgil, Statius, Ovid, Lucan. There was at all times a great deal of practice in dictation. It is interesting to note in this connection that the Seminary of Quebec City still has the Psalters used by Jesuits for teaching the first French colonists in Canada.—Le Gresley, *L'enseignement du français en Acadie*, 1926, p. 78.

14th, 15th and 16th centuries with its finer feeling for good Latin. Barbaric but living Latin was replaced by a more correct but lifeless speech in which vocabulary and grammar were restricted to words and constructions found only in the ancient classics, especially in the writings of Cicero, the popular readers of the middle ages having all been rejected. New formations were forbidden. Latin ceased to be a universal auxiliary language except in the Roman church. Education with the renaissance became something remote from the pupil's immediate surroundings—to such an extent that a reaction was inevitable.

In the middle ages, Latin had a practical value, while serving also a pedagogic purpose. Its chief function in the schools was now very largely restricted to the latter use. In many schools it became a policy to despise the vernacular literatures, and everything that was new or modern—in direct opposition to the true spirit of humanism. Spoken Latin soon became confined to the sciences and of these to such as were themselves dead and could be expressed in fixed formulae. For the new learning and the new sciences, Latin no longer proved adequate. The grammars of Lyly (1515) and Linacre (1524) with their rules and numerous examples from classical writers—the critical apparatus having grown apace—replaced the simple Donatus. For a short period during the renaissance the classical languages were presented in a vital way, but deadening formalism soon cast its blight upon the subject. Latin was still spoken, but in a less spontaneous way, the stress on correct grammar and classical phraseology inhibiting colloquial facility. Only in the class-room of the Latin teacher were attempts still made to compose in Latin by matching Ciceronian words, or, if verse was assayed, by making a patchwork of Horatian

phrases. Gerund-grinding formed the chief staple of the educational process. A wrong emphasis was placed on language study in general—as though it were an end in itself—and the true purpose of the subject, namely, to give direct access to a nation's history, literature and thought, was lost sight of. The specious argument was indeed offered, but not until the 19th century, when the ancient classics were on the defensive, that the study of Latin developed power in the use of the native tongue, whereas the latter is best developed by more direct practice, and with less danger of contamination from the foreign idiom. Translation, although advocated as early as the 16th century by Ascham, was a late pedagogic development fostered chiefly by the modern system of written examinations. Until the end of the 18th century boys learned Latin by committing passages to memory, by imitation and reproduction, but not by translation, with its continual comparison with the mother tongue—an unnatural linguistic process.

For words and conversational phrases useful in the discussion of everyday topics with teachers and companions, the medieval student had manuals of vocabularies and colloquia. Such material was grouped analogically, and, in the case of colloquies, under headings like *Surrectio matutina*; *Deductio ad ludum*; *Reditus domum, et lusus pueriles*, etc. The following extract from *Surrectio matutina*, taken from Vives' *Linguae Latinae Exercitatio* (1539—dating from the time when humanism was in full flower, but medieval in that new words are introduced to suit contemporary conditions), will serve as an example of the method used to learn a living language for practical purposes.

*Beatrix puella, Emmanuel, Eusebius.*

B. Jesus Christus exuscitet vos a somno vitiorum. Heus pueri, estis ne hodie evigilaturi?



*Eu.* Nescio quid incidit mihi in oculos, ita videor eos habere plenos arenae.

*B.* Haec est tua prima cantio matutina, & bene vetus. Aperiam fenestras hasce ambas, ligneam, & vitream, ut feriat clarum mane vestros amborum oculos. Surgite, surgite?

*Eu.* Tam multo mane?

*B.* Proprior est meridies, quam aurora. . . . Vis tu, Emmanuel, recentem subuculum? . . .

This type of familiar dialogue has survived to the present day, and its history can be traced through the works of practical modern language teachers like Florio, Luna, Minsheu, Oudin, Torriano and many others to modern times:

*Don Pedro.* ¿Oyes mozo?

*Alonso.* Sí, señor.

*Don Pedro.* ¿Qué hora es?

*Alonso.* Las cinco son dadas.

*Don Pedro.* Levántate y abre aquella ventana a ver si es de día.

*Alonso.* Aun no es bien amanecido.

(—Minsheu, *Pleasant and Delightful Dialogues in Spanish and English* . . . 1623).

Perchè non vi levate?

Mi levo, signore.

Bisogna levarsi più per tempo. Siete troppo pigro.

(—Pleunus, *A New, Plain, Methodical and Compleat Italian Grammar*, 1715).

Wilhelm wache auf!

Wachst du?

Ja, ich wache schon lange. Wie viel Uhr ist es?

Es ist sieben Uhr. Stehe auf!

O ich bin so müde!

(—Lange, *The German At Home, a Practical Introduction to German Conversation*, Oxford, 1887).

Colloquies can be traced back to remote times, at least to one by the Greek, Julius Pollux, of the third century A.D., and survive in modern phrase books published for travellers, in the exercises of so-called practical school books, in daily-life manuals and the Berlitz method with its imitation of a sojourn abroad.

Vocabularies,<sup>1</sup> arranged by topics, and sometimes illustrated with pictures, even in the middle ages, can also be traced to modern times through the *Orbis Sensualium Pictus* of Comenius to the Ripman object-lesson series.

A serious fault of the old colloquies and word lists was the extensive range of the vocabulary and disregard of any discrimination between common and unusual words. It was William Bathe who, in his *Janua Linguarum*, published at Salamanca in 1611, first practised the modern idea of restraint in such matters. In this work appeared an ordered collection of about 1,200 sentences, containing all the fundamental Latin words in common use, the total number of words being about

<sup>1</sup>The standard work of reference for medieval school glossaries is Thomas Wright's *Collection of Vocabularies, Word Glosses and Glossaries*, 1857. Foster Watson, in *The English Grammar School to 1660*, quotes the following items from the statutes of the Bangor Friar School of 1568: "Besides the said Ordinary lectures the schoolmaster or Husher by the schoolmaster's appointment shall every night teach their scholars their Latin words with the English signification which their Latin words with their English significations every one of the scholars shall render without the books openly in the midst of the school so that the schoolmaster may hear and inform them every morning at their first coming to the school.

"They shall begin with words that concern the head reciting orderly as nigh as they can every part and member of the body and every particular of the same, after that they shall teach the names of sickness, diseases, virtues, vices, fishes, fowls, birds, beasts, herbs, shrubs, trees, and so forth they shall proceed in good order to such things as may be most frequented and daily used."

5,300. Comenius, who imitated Bathe's work in the *Janua Linguarum Reserata*, fifteen years later extended the needful Latin vocabulary to over 8,000. Bathe's plan was to secure that each century of sentences centres around some generally-defined subject, like the cardinal virtues and the opposed failings, human activity, peace and strife, and, in a final and more practical section, arts and crafts.

Modern methodology for foreign language study as practised in the schools owes more, however, to two tendencies of the renaissance: preoccupation with formal grammar, and the restriction of reading material to difficult classical texts, translated or deciphered laboriously for pedagogic purposes (often miscalled discipline) rather than for aesthetic pleasure. Before the pupil was able to read simple prose and poetry, advanced reading material was thrust upon him, often only for practice in grammar. Language study degenerated into the mechanical thumbing of dictionaries or the slavish use of keys. Traditionally, the ability to translate is identified with the ability to read, but translation is an exercise that aims exclusively at form, and pupils often translate pages without having a clear idea of the content. They have struggled only with words. Reading, as we now know, is a different process altogether from translating.

For purposes of drill in formal grammar, exercises were devised, about the beginning of the 18th century, to illustrate rules and exceptions.<sup>1</sup> Exceptional and rare

<sup>1</sup>In the adaptations of Lyly's Latin grammar, examples were given with English translations in parallel columns as was the practice in dialogue books. These, apparently about 1700, were then arranged separately and thus provided the prototype for the exercises in translation which have since become such a large part of school grammars. The exact date of the innovation cannot be determined with the old text-books available here, but Hoadly's Latin grammar

usages were emphasized more than the common and useful constructions. It is difficult to make sentences prepared for such a purpose connected in content, or even to keep them from being unnatural and absurd. Much of the grammar so learned could in fact only be applied in such an artificial medium as has been described, or the application was so long deferred that the pupil forgot the principle involved. Back of the faulty method lay the theory of discipline, and the fallacy that because the pupil has mastered difficult constructions, he is therefore capable of applying the more common and useful grammatical principles. Paradigms, rules and exceptions were memorized apart from connected reading. Because the reading was always intensive the amount read or translated was small. Where the method was transferred to the study of the modern languages pronunciation was neglected. The despotism of purely grammatical study prevailed so long that not only Horace, but modern authors like Corneille became "hated so". "The common way," wrote Ascham in the 16th century, and his strictures could be applied to language methods until well into the 19th century, "used in common schools to read the grammar (Latin) alone by itself, is tedious for the master, hard for the scholar, cold and uncomfortable for them both."

Another critic of the grammar method—the grammar-translation method was not invented until the 18th century—was Montaigne, who, in his essay *De l'institution*

of 1683 still uses parallel columns for the examples and translations, although it is obvious from the changes introduced in the translations that they were intended for exercises. In modern language grammars of the 16th and 17th centuries there are no exercises for practice on the grammar, but dialogues on familiar topics, "most useful for such as desire the speaking part, and intend to travel." Such early grammars for the study of modern languages were written for adults.



*des enfants* (1580), described and defended the oral method by which he had learned to speak Latin so fluently that contemporary scholars (including George Buchanan) were afraid to enter into discourse with him. This essay has had a very definite influence on the theory of language methodology, although only in our own time have efforts been made to introduce the method into schools. Montaigne's father, a student of education who had become acquainted with the renaissance in Italy, was persuaded that "the tedious time we apply to the learning of the tongues of them who had them for nothing, was the sole cause we could not arrive to the grandeur of soul and perfection of knowledge of the ancient Greeks and Romans." He therefore recreated the Roman environment for his boy by employing tutors who spoke to him in no other language but Latin. "As to the rest of his family, it was an inviolable rule, that neither himself, nor my mother, man nor maid, should speak anything in my company but such Latin words as every one had learned only to gabble with me." Not only did Montaigne learn to speak Latin in this way, but in the process his father, mother and the servants also learnt it. In fact "we Latined it at such a rate that it overflowed to all the neighbouring villages. . . . As for what concerns myself, I was above six years of age before I understood either French or Perigordin . . . and without art, book, grammar, or precept, whipping, or the expense of a tear. I had, by that time, learned to speak as pure Latin as my master himself, for I had no means of mixing it up with any other."

At six Montaigne was sent to the college of Guyenne, at that time the best and most flourishing classical college in France. Latin had ceased to be spoken in the schools, and as Montaigne says, he soon lost the use of it.

In *Some Thoughts Concerning Education* (1692) Locke shows clearly the influence of Montaigne's attack on grammar schools with their bookishness and pedantry. Locke looked upon Latin as necessary to a gentleman; indeed, he says "custom, which prevails over everything, has made it so much a part of education that even those children are whipped to it, and made spend many hours of their precious time uneasily in Latin, who, after they are once gone from school, are never to have more to do with it as long as they live." He protests strongly, however, against wasting money and time on teaching it to a pupil intended for a trade, "wherein he, having no use of Latin, fails not to forget that little which he brought from school, and which 'tis ten to one he abhors for the ill usage it procured him." This, and what immediately follows, anticipate the modern principle of "function", Locke adding that time so misspent could be devoted to other useful subjects that were then neglected. As for the prevalent grammatical method of learning Latin, Locke argues much like Montaigne, that the child learns the vernacular without "master, rule or grammar, and so might he Latin, too, as Tully did, if he had somebody always to talk to him in this language. English girls so learn French by prattling with their native French instructress. I cannot", he continues, "but wonder how gentlemen have overseen this way for their sons and thought them more dull or incapable than their daughters."<sup>1</sup> The next best method to have the pupil taught is as near this way as may be, by taking some easy and pleasant book, such as Aesop's *Fables*, and writing the English translation in one line and the Latin words just over it in another . . . and when he comes

<sup>1</sup>In schools for girls French and Italian had a place in the curriculum long before modern languages were admitted to schools for boys.

to write let these be set him for copies. . . . The formation of the verbs first, and afterwards the declensions of the nouns perfectly learned by heart, may facilitate his acquaintance with the genius and manner of the Latin tongue. . . . More than this grammar, I think he need not have, till he can read himself *Sanctii Minerva* (a learned grammatical work by the Spaniard, Francisco Sánchez), with Scoppius and Perizonius' notes." As one editor (Quick) of Locke's treatise points out, if the study of Latin grammar were put off until the young gentlemen were able (and willing) to study Sanctius, Scoppius and Perizonius, this looks a little like fixing it for the Greek Kalends. Continuing in his attack on the grammatical method, Locke declares that he fain would have anyone name to him that tongue that anyone can learn or speak as he should do by the rules of grammar. "Languages were made not by rules or art but by accident, and the common use of the people (a theory probably borrowed from Comenius and rediscovered or restated recently by Sayce, Bally and others). And he that will speak them well has no other rule but that, nor anything to trust to but his memory and the habit of speaking after the fashion learned from those that are allowed to speak properly, which, in other words, is only to speak by rote,"—expressed in a modern way, grammatical rules inhibit facility of speech.

It is unnecessary to repeat all of Locke's arguments for learning languages by conversation and reading and not by grammar, which should not be taught to everyone as though "all our young gentlemen were designed to be teachers and professors of the dead languages of foreign countries, and not to be men of business in their own." Grammar should only be taught to those who can already speak the language. It should then serve as an intro-



duction to rhetoric, but where "rhetoric is not necessary grammar may be spared. . . ." "If his use of it (the foreign language) be only to understand some books writ in it, without a critical knowledge of the tongue itself, reading alone, as I have said, will attain this end, without charging the mind with the multiplied rules and intricacies of grammar."

Locke has the modern educator's interest in teaching English and other subjects besides Latin. He believes, moreover, that to be perfect in Latin "wherein the manner of expressing one's self is so far different from ours, would very little improve the purity and facility of his English style. . . . That (English) is the language he (an English gentleman) should chiefly cultivate, and wherein most care should be taken to polish and perfect his style. To speak or write better Latin than English may make a man be talked of, but he would find it more to his purpose to express himself well in his own tongue, that he uses every moment, than to have the vain commendation of others for a very insignificant quality. . . . To mind what English his pupil speaks or writes is below the dignity of one held up amongst Greek and Latin, though he have but little of them himself. These are the learned languages fit only for learned men to meddle with and teach; English is the language of the illiterate vulgar: Tho' yet we see the polity of some of our neighbours hath not thought it beneath the public care to promote and reward the improvement of their language. Polishing and enriching their tongue is no small business amongst them; it hath colleges and stipends appointed it, and there is raised amongst them a great ambition and emulation of writing correctly. . . .<sup>1</sup> I am not here

<sup>1</sup>Obviously a reference to colleges like Richelieu's, and the language academies founded in Italy and France during the 16th and 17th centuries as a result of a



speaking against Greek and Latin. But whatever foreign languages a young man meddles with (and the more he knows the better) that which he should critically study, and labour to get a facility, clearness and elegancy to express himself in, should be his own; and to this purpose he should daily be exercised in it." It is worth noting that in Locke's time, as the vernacular was still despised in the schools, it could not yet be urged that translating Latin improved the use of English, an argument that was not thought of in England until the 19th century.

When Latin ceased to be the spoken language of the schools it lost forever the natural environment in which a natural method could be used. This was the price paid by the renaissance for its quarrel with medieval Latin. Educational writers began to think of establishing communities which would speak Latin only. Such plans probably suggested to Montaigne's father his simpler means of creating a favourable environment. Vives considered that the absence of such a community was the only justification for the study of grammar. Vossius declared that it was desirable that there should exist some clan or tribe which would speak Latin. In 1652 Hornius made a more practical suggestion: "Now, because all that way of learning tongues which hath hitherto been either used or invented hath not yet satisfied the public expectation, I would therefore persuade that those charges which are commonly bestowed on public schools should rather be laid out for planting of Roman, Grecian and Hebrew colonies. . . . Youth should be sent into these colonies, that from their tender years or riper age they might be accustomed to speak and write those languages."<sup>1</sup>

movement, encouraged by Castiglione, Speroni and others, to cultivate the vernacular.

<sup>1</sup>Quoted by Corcoran, *Studies in the History of Classical Teaching*, 1911, pp. 138-139.

But all this came to naught, and Latin has continued to be taught by the grammar or grammar-translation method down to our times, with occasional experiments in other methods, as, for example, at the Perse School, Cambridge, where the oral method, as developed for teaching modern languages, has been adopted, "not as an end but as a means."

Meanwhile, about the middle of the 19th century the new science of phonetics was founded by Alexander J. Ellis (*Essentials of Phonetics*, 1848, *Early English Pronunciation*, 1868-89) and Alexander Bell (*Visible Speech*, 1865). Speaking before the Philological Society in 1874, Henry Sweet declared that the progress of phonetics had been so great in the last few years that the great bulk of the observations already made on living languages was next to useless.<sup>1</sup> His observations on sentence, word and syllable division<sup>2</sup> led to his discovery of "breath-groups"—people had imagined previously that they made a pause at the end of every word. A few years later he declared<sup>3</sup> that language is essentially based on the dualism of form (=sounds) and meaning, and that all attempts to reduce language to strict logical or psychological categories, by ignoring its formal side, have failed.

The systems of Arnold, Ollendorf, Ahn, Prendergast and others were, as Sweet pointed out, based on the fallacy that words, like the nine digits in arithmetic, can be combined into sentences *ad libitum* by the help of a few general rules. "I learned Greek," he adds, "on this system at school, and one of the sentences I met with has stamped itself indelibly on my memory.

<sup>1</sup>Transactions, 1873-4, p. 94.

<sup>2</sup>Transactions, 1875-6, p. 470.

<sup>3</sup>Transactions, 1877, p. 9.

It is this: 'The philosopher pulled the lower jaw of the hen'. . . . We may learn our Ollendorf . . . , but the language itself still remains to be learnt."

Sweet's interests were still largely philological. He realized, however, the significance of the new science of phonology for the practical study of the modern, spoken, languages. Another philologist, Archibald Sayce, applied the new principles very specifically to practical education. In a review of Otté's *How to Learn Danish*<sup>1</sup> he made some very pertinent observations: "The methods and results of comparative philology have as yet had but little influence on practical education. Language consists of sounds, not of letters. . . . Language, moreover, is formed and moulded by the unconscious action of the community as a whole (not a new observation, as we have met it in Locke), and, like the life of the community, is in a constant state of change and development. Consequently we cannot compress the grammar of a language into a series of rigid rules, which, once laid down by the grammarian, are as unalterable as the laws of the Medes and Persians. On the contrary, grammar is what the community makes it. What was in vogue yesterday is forgotten to-day. What is right to-day will be wrong to-morrow. But, above all, language, except for the purposes of the lexicographer, consists not of words but of sentences. We shall never be able to speak a foreign tongue simply by committing to memory long lists of isolated words. Even if we further know all the rules of the grammarians we shall find ourselves unable in actual practice to get very far in stringing our words together or in understanding what is said to us in return. This was not the way in which we learnt our own mother tongue, and if we would learn another language easily

<sup>1</sup>*Nature*, Vol. XX, 1879, p. 93.

and correctly we must set about learning it as we learnt our own. . . . Let the pupil first saturate his mind, as it were, with sentences or phrases; there will be plenty of time afterwards to analyze these into words and grammatical forms. We must begin with the whole, not with its parts; analysis is the task of science, not of practical education. Until we can realize that Greek and Latin are in no essential respect different from English, or French, or German; that they do not consist in a certain number of forms and rules learned by rote out of a school-grammar, or even in the polished phrases of a few literary men, but in sounds once uttered and inspired with meaning by men who spoke and thought as we do, the long years spent over Latin and Greek are as good as wasted. It were far better to fill our minds and store our memories with something which will be practically useful to us in after life, and at the same time afford that mental training of which we hear so much. To begin our education with the dead tongues, and afterwards fill up the odd intervals of time with a modern language or two, is to reverse the order of science and nature. The necessary result is to produce a total misapprehension of the real character of speech, a permanent inability to gain a conversational knowledge of foreign idioms, and a false and generally meagre acquaintance with the classical languages themselves. It is not wonderful that the modicum of Latin and Greek acquired during years of painful work at school should so frequently disappear altogether as soon as school is left, and considering the erroneous views this small modicum of learning implies, it is perhaps hardly to be regretted that it should.

When a conversational knowledge of a foreign idiom has once been obtained, and the pupil is able to think in another language than his own, the analysis and study



of the idiom should be carried on in the light of comparative philology. . . . When the action of philological laws has been traced and illustrated in modern languages it will be easy to pass on to the dead ones and show how they are but the earlier forms of living speech—past links in the great chain of unbroken development.”

While Sweet and Sayce were developing ideas destined to revolutionize the teaching of languages, Wilhelm Viëtor was a lecturer in German at the University of Liverpool. On his return to Germany he launched his famous polemic, *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren* (1882). The points chiefly stressed by Viëtor, who acknowledged his indebtedness to Locke, Sayce and Sweet, were the need for a study of phonetics, the reading of texts in the foreign tongue, without translating, and the learning of the essential grammar deductively, and not the formal grammar of declensions and conjugations. The end which Viëtor had in mind for language study was literary and intellectual, through the reading of foreign literature. Modifications (good and bad) in the “reform” method, as it was called, were introduced later by Walter, Münch and Ulbrich. These it is unnecessary to discuss here in detail: suffice it to say that “Realienkunde”, the use of gesture and mimicry on the part of the teacher, the sacrifice of intellectual and aesthetic interests to the practical, were developments, from which the “reform” method has now, on the whole, recovered, since a middle course of compromise seems now to be favoured.

This is not the place to trace the history of the controversy over the oral method which has raged for nearly half a century. A bibliography of the polemic would probably exceed a thousand items in German alone. Partisans of the new method effected so many improvements in language teaching that they themselves

soon realized the wisdom of withdrawing from extreme applications of the method. At the same time it became apparent that certain objectives had not, and could not, be realized. Writing in *Die Neusprachliche Reform-Literatur*, the organ of the cause, Breymann, its editor, summed up in 1905 the advantages and disadvantages of the method as follows:

1. On the positive side:

- (a) A wholesome and powerful revitalizing of the modern language teacher, who, by the routine of the old method, was threatened with ossification.
- (b) Better preparation of the teacher through residence abroad, holiday courses at home and in foreign lands, and phonetic studies.
- (c) Reduction of grammatical rules to the usual and essential, with a consequent revision of grammars.
- (d) Revision of reading material, "realien" books, and chrestomathies.<sup>1</sup>
- (e) A check on written and oral translation from the mother tongue, which now divides attention with dictation, reconstruction, narration, questions and answers.
- (f) Better selection of readings in literature.
- (g) Greater emphasis on the spoken language—oral practice, use of pictures, pronunciation in unison, more frequent use of the foreign language in instruction.

On the other hand, it has not been possible to realize some important claims of the Reform in the mass instruction prevalent in schools, as, for example:

<sup>1</sup>By these are meant books dealing with foreign countries, life and manners.

- (a) Language mastery—an ideal aim.
- (b) Complete exclusion of the mother tongue, and as a consequence:
- (c) Exclusion of translation;
- (d) Exclusively inductive method of teaching grammar from the reading (disdain for and neglect of grammar).

The weakness of the reform method is revealed, the author continues, by a consideration of the aim it proposes for modern language learning, namely, mastery of the spoken language. This is not an attainable objective in secondary schools, since the energies of both teacher and pupil are not only taxed but frayed ("aufgerieben"); the objective is, moreover, not a practical one, since only a small proportion of pupils are in a position to use this mastery of the spoken language in actual life; and, finally, this should *never* be considered the main objective in secondary schools.

Like other sympathetic observers, Breymann remarks that if Walter's success with the method was extraordinary this is no proof of its general applicability, but only goes to show that Walter was an extraordinarily good teacher, and that he taught under the very favourable conditions that prevailed in the model school of Frankfurt.

A final summing up of the quarrel over the direct method appeared in the last number (1909, written by Steinmüller):

"The Reform has fulfilled its mission. It has laid the ghosts of the grammatical method, which made a fetish of the study of grammar with excessive attention to translation from and into the foreign language. Reading formerly served chiefly as a handmaiden to grammar, and was too exclusively limited to historical-literary

works. Speaking ability was kept in the background and correct pronunciation was neglected. Such an antiquated method of teaching is now once and for all impossible. But what the grammatical method neglected, practical and correct use of the spoken language, the reform method has pushed to extremes. In making mastery of the spoken language the chief objective, the nature and function of secondary schools was overlooked, because such an objective under normal conditions of mass instruction is only attainable in a modest degree. The reform method requires not only a teacher who possesses perfect mastery of the foreign language, but makes such claims on his nervous and physical energy as to entail premature exhaustion. Average pupils, not to mention the weaker ones, do not justify the demands made by the oral use of the language; they soon weary, are overburdened and revolt. Early adherents of the new method, after their enthusiasm has been dashed by stern realities, have gradually broken away."

In order not to interrupt the story of the oral method, which, as has been seen, is unbroken from Montaigne to Sayce, Sweet and Viëtor, consideration of other methods has been deferred, to the neglect of certain important tendencies affecting modern practice. In the 17th and 18th centuries there developed, under the influence of Comenius, a more practical pedagogy, and as a consequence a noticeable improvement in the selection of material presented in Latin grammars. This tendency to reduce grammar to essentials was carried still farther in the 19th century in modern language text-books; so far indeed that systems were developed which dispensed with grammar altogether.

Our chief concern is with modern language methods,



but it is worth while casting a glance at an early reformer in the teaching of Latin, Samuel Hoadly, author of *The Natural Method of Teaching* (London, 1683). Accidence is here taught by the catechism method of questions and answers. The grammar is made simple, and examples are provided to put the rules to use: "By abundance of plain and easy examples in both tongues, adjusted parallel to each other everywhere, and by reducing the whole into such order and method that everything might be found in its proper place." The author thus avoids "filling children's heads with what they are not yet in capacity to apprehend, or apply to present use." In the vocabulary care is taken that only the most useful words should appear—evidence of the influence of Comenius. Applications of the rules, as has been noted, are given in parallel columns, and are clearly intended for exercises in imitation. Thus opposite, "Vulpes current subter collem," is the English sentence, "Fishes run in under banks." The vocabulary, it will be observed, is taken from daily life, in accordance with the theory and practice of Comenius, who, in this respect, revolted from extreme classicists.

Toward the end of the 18th century a new interest was taken in foreign language study and numerous grammars appeared. They were written primarily for children, and not as formerly chiefly for adults who intended to make the grand tour. The most popular were: Wanostrocht's *A Practical Grammar of the French Language* (London, 1782, 2nd ed.), Lévizac's *A Theoretical and Practical Grammar of the French Tongue* (London, 1799), and Noehden's *Elements of German Grammar, Intended for Beginners* (London, 1807). These works retained their immense popularity, as attested by numerous editions, throughout the first half of the 19th

century, and were the first grammars used in Canada. Two of them were self-styled "practical", but with their interminable lists of irregular forms and extensive vocabularies for memorization—Lévizac's has twenty-five pages of words grouped analogically in the time-honoured way—they made language study meaningless drudgery.

For the next generation the exercise-method which now became prevalent, was represented by Ahn, Aue, Adler (and many others), who pushed artificiality and absurdity to the extreme, text-books consisting of rules, vocabularies, and disconnected sentences for translation from and into the foreign language. A few of Ahn's famous sentences deserve to be recalled: "The daughter of our gardener's wife is called Jane. We have faithful friends, amicable brothers and useful books. As extravagant as is Mr. N. so avaricious is his uncle. Do you know where that gentleman lives, who he is, and where he is going? We do not." Such sentences provoke parody, and one by Burnand may be quoted here from Sweet: "The merchant is swimming with (*avec*) the gardener's son, but the Dutchman has the fine gun." Sentences of the Ahn type, although now discredited, unfortunately still appear in modern grammars, and especially in examination papers.

Ollendorff's sentences were equally artificial and quite as famous. Ollendorff believed that the essential part of language is the noun: "Have the Russians pepper? They have but little pepper, but a good deal of salt. Do you give my friend fewer knives than gloves? I give him more of the latter than of the former. Does our neighbour break his sticks instead of breaking his glasses? He breaks neither the ones nor the others."

"Disconnected words," as Jespersen remarks, "are but mere stones for bread; one cannot say anything sensible

with mere lists of words. Not even disconnected sentences should be used, for they give the pupil quite an erroneous idea of what language is on the whole. He is too apt to get the idea that there must be a corresponding word in his native tongue for each new foreign word he learns. By reading school books one often gets the impression that Frenchmen must be strictly systematical beings who one day speak merely in futures, another day in *passé définis*, and say the most disconnected things only for the sake of being able to use all the persons in the tense which for the time being happens to be the subject for conversation, while they carefully postpone the use of the subjunctive till next year."

Meanwhile, Jean Joseph Jacotot (1770-1840), inventor of the universal method of instruction (*L'Enseignement universel*, 1823), developed a new system of language learning. He began by making the pupil commit to memory a simple passage of literature, in which he studies first the separate words, then the grammar, and lastly the full meaning of the passage.<sup>1</sup> As in the reform method grammar is learned inductively, and not as a phenomenon isolated from its context.

James Hamilton (1769-1829) also discarded preliminary drill in formal grammar, using, like Jacotot, an inductive reading method, with the addition of inter-linear translations—called "Hamiltonian", but not altogether original with Hamilton, as such translations had been used previously in grammar exercises, as, for example, by Lévizac (imitated later by De Fivas and others).

In 1867 Gottlieb Henezs, author of the *Leitfaden für den Unterricht in der deutschen Sprache*, rediscovered or

<sup>1</sup>For another reading method, called "direct" by its inventor, Claude Marcel (1855), see the bibliography.



interpreted anew the "natural" or "direct" method: the use of the foreign tongue in the class-room, pictures and objects of the pupil's environment providing the subject matter, and formal grammar serving only as a commentary on the language. Translation was avoided. Henezs's direct method made extensive use of questions "spontaneously but naturally and logically connected and built up one on the other each suggesting the next and their answers." His lessons required much action on the part of the pupils, even calling for gymnastic exercises in response to questions.<sup>1</sup>

Another language teacher who influenced methods profoundly was Gouin. His method, which he called psychological, was developed at great length in *L'art d'enseigner et d'étudier la langue* (1880), and consists of series of exercises arranged in logical order, the sentences of each exercise being grouped about themes or processes. Ollendorff believed that the key to languages is the noun; Gouin, on the contrary, taught that it is the verb, and so his sentences express action or movement: "I go to the door; I draw near to the door; I come to the door; I stop at the door; I stretch out my arm; I take hold of the handle," etc. Gouin's method has the advantage over all other systems—and this is its real significance—that it encourages self-expression or linguistic activity in the foreign tongue, and thereby approaches more nearly than any other method the ideal of modern pedagogic theory. More than any other method it likewise creates pure-thought associations.

The last phase in the discussion of methodology is the

<sup>1</sup>Henezs was principal of a language school in Boston, and associated with himself Sauveur for French. Henezs undertook to obtain fluency in speaking a foreign language in nine months. His method is illustrated by the first lesson: *Was ist das? Das ist ein Finger*,—a theme discussed for seven pages, after which other parts of the body are taken up.



conviction expressed by George Ticknor almost a hundred years ago, and restated in our own times by numerous educationists, that there is no *one* best mode of teaching languages, applicable to all classes and conditions or to persons of different ages and different degrees of preparation.<sup>1</sup> In our scientific age it can, however, be determined by experiment what is the best method when the circumstances are known and the aims defined.

#### THE PSYCHOLOGY OF MODERN LANGUAGE LEARNING.

The present interest of language teachers in psychology, and especially in educational psychology, is frequently a source of embarrassment to the conscientious psychologist. During recent years, marked advances have been made in the analysis and measurement of many school subjects, notably reading and arithmetic, with consequent improvement in the pedagogy of these subjects. As these developments have come to be generally known, those engaged in teaching allied branches have come to look more and more to the psychological laboratory for the solution of vexed questions of methodology. That this proves embarrassing is due solely to the fact that studies in foreign language learning, comparable to those made in the vernacular, have hardly been begun.

The reasons for this are not far to seek. The functions to be developed in arithmetic can be enumerated in a fairly definite way, and such tabulation will be accepted

<sup>1</sup>In his *Lecture on the Best Methods of Teaching the Living Languages* (Boston 1833). A copy of this rare pamphlet, which deserves to be reprinted, is preserved in the Boston Public Library, to which institution thanks are here tendered for the loan of such a rarity. Ticknor, it may be added, stressed the need for a knowledge of the colloquial idiom as the only means of understanding great authors like Schiller, Molière, Cervantes, Dante, and "for this reason even those who do not intend to speak a foreign language, but only to read it, should never cease to remember that they are learning a living and spoken tongue."

by the great body of teachers of that subject. One has only to read the section of this bibliography entitled "Aims and Methods" to realize that modern language teachers make no pretence at agreement as to the objectives to be attained. The psychologist is, then, unable to obtain from the literature on the subject any assurance as to the specific functions which language teachers wish to analyse, train, or measure. The intrinsic difficulty of this analysis is one of the factors that has delayed fruitful experimentation in this field. It should be remembered that much may be transferred from technique devised for studies in the vernacular; thus one problem in modern language learning is the development of speed, accuracy and comprehension in reading a printed page. The laboratory and testing techniques devised for the investigation of English reading are directly usable in the field of foreign languages, and significant beginnings have already been made (*cf.* Buswell). At a later point in this study we shall have occasion to indicate the limitations of these studies, in so far as the learning problem is concerned.

A second reason for the meagre results available to-day is the very brief time during which experimental studies of language learning have been carried on. Meillet<sup>1</sup> points out that during the 19th century linguistic researches were chiefly historical in nature, concerned with indicating how a linguistic phenomenon had evolved from an earlier stage or where an innovation had appeared. This finds definite expression in Paul's *Prinzipien der Sprachgeschichte*, in which the author expressly states that the historical method is the only scientific method for the study of language. The historical phase has doubtless

<sup>1</sup>Meillet, A. *Note sur Quelques Recherches de Linguistique*, *L'Année Psych.*, 1905, pp. 457-467.

been of significance. It is not our purpose or our problem to evaluate this position, but it may be doubted if any science can be built on such semi-empirical, semi-logical data as Paul collates. The point with which we are more concerned is that up to the beginning of the present century, few linguists were even thinking of language as a psychological phenomenon, or of language learning as a type of human behaviour, subject to laws and principles.

One of the first attempts by a linguist to study the psychological problems of language learning is Oertel's *The Scientific Study of Language*. Asserting that language is a psychological phenomenon, which in one sense at least is true, he postulated that psychological laws could provide all the explanations for linguistic phenomena, which is untrue. Language is anatomical, physiological, psychological, social, and historical in its structure, and psychologists can no more solve the problems of language, unaided, than can historians.

In the second place, the psychologist's interest in language studies has passed through several stages of which the present educational phase is merely the most recent. Many of the earliest inquiries were inspired by anthropological interests. In this category one would list the studies of Abel<sup>1</sup> and Chamberlain.<sup>2</sup> These parallel closely the investigations of Paul, and reflect the same point of view with regard to the problems of linguistic phenomena.

<sup>1</sup>Abel, C., in his *Linguistic Essays*, London, 1882, has a chapter entitled "The Conception of Love in Some Ancient and Modern Languages."

<sup>2</sup>Chamberlain, A. F., published in the *Amer. J. of Psych.*, a series of papers on vocabulary. See 1893-95, pp. 585-592, in which the author reviews the vocabulary used to denote the state of anger in the languages of Europeans, Asiatics and American Indians; also *ibid.*, 1903, pp. 410-417, a study of primitive taste words; *ibid.*, 1905, pp. 119-123, a study of primitive hearing and hearing words. A parallel study on the "Acquisition of Written Language by Primitive Peoples" appears in the same journal, 1906, pp. 68-90.



A second phase of psychological interest is that of speech defect. This dates from 1861, when Broca first described certain clinical cases of aphasia and localized them in the left inferior frontal convolution of the brain. Succceding decades brought contributions from Wernicke, Hughlings Jackson, Dejerine, Pierre Marie, Piéron, and Henry Head. These investigations were in part concerned with the localization of speech functions in the cortex, in part with a description and classification of types of speech disorder. A bibliography of the major articles on the controversy is given in the footnote.<sup>1</sup> Head emphasized the fact that the use of language requires the interaction of very complex brain processes; that once language is acquired it can be disturbed by anything that interrupts this complex physiological process; that speech disorders are of various kinds, the type being correlated, he believes, with disorder in specific regions of the brain. The influence of Lombroso's theory of atavism is reflected in yet another approach to the pathology of language, made by Ferrari.<sup>2</sup> More recently, a significant body of literature has appeared of a more

<sup>1</sup>Select bibliography on aphasia : Bianchi, Leonardo, *The Mechanism of the Brain and the Function of the Frontal Lobes*: Tr. by James H. MacDonald, 1922; Head, Henry, *Hughlings Jackson on Aphasia and Kindred Affections of Speech, Brain*, 1915, vol. 38, pp. 1-58, 59-64, *Aphasia and Kindred Disorders of Speech, Brain*, 1921, vol. 43, pp. 87-165, *Aphasia, an Historical Review, Brain*, Jan. 1921, vol. 43, pp. 390-411, *Speech and Cerebral Localization, Brain*, 1923, vol. 46, pp. 355-582; Jackson, Hughlings, various articles, reprinted by Head in *Brain*, 1915, vol. 38, pp. 65-186; Meyer, Adolf, *Aphasia* (A critical review of C. Wernicke's *Der aphasische Symptomencomplex*, 1903), *Psych. Bull.*, Aug. 1905, pp. 261-277; Pieron, H., *La Notion des centres coordinateurs cérébraux et le mécanisme du langage*, *Rev. Phil.*, 1921, pp. 99-142, 233-280; *Proceedings of the Neurological Section of the Royal Society of Medicine, Discussion on Aphasia, Brain*, 1921, vol. 43, pp. 412-450, gives the views of Drs. James Collier, Kinnear Wilson, Stanley Barnes, Sir James Purves Stewart and Mr. J. Herbert Parsons, on Aphasia.

<sup>2</sup>Ferrari, G. C., *La Degenerazione nello stile dei paranoici erotici*, *Rev. Sperim. di Fren. e di Med. Leg.*, 1893, pp. 329-363. Attempts to demonstrate that patients who are degenerating mentally show atavistic returns in language functions.



strictly psychological sort of speech disorders, *e.g.*, stuttering, lisping, and cluttering of speech. The interest of these workers is primarily that of mental hygiene, and Scripture, Blanton, Swift, Greene, Travis, and others have given much time to developing therapeutic measures.<sup>1</sup> These investigators indicate that speech is at once a neurological process, requiring organic integrity of the sections of the body used for speech—the ear, the brain and the organs of articulation—and, at the same time, a psychological process,—a mode of interaction between a human being and his environment. Speech disorders may be due to a disturbance in either set of processes.

Yet another group of psychological studies must be mentioned in passing. Lyon<sup>2</sup> has a brief, interesting article on animal speech, a problem that has intrigued many biologists and students of animal psychology, before and since that date. Carruth<sup>3</sup> reports a study of the words used in controlling animal behaviour in various parts of the United States.

But the major impetus to language psychology was given by Wundt, who, in the first volume of his *Völkerpsychologie* (1900), entitled *Die Sprache*, applied the principles of psychology to many of the general problems

<sup>1</sup>Select bibliography on speech disorders: Anderson, Lewis O., *A Preliminary Report of an Experimental Analysis of Causes of Stuttering*, *Jour. of Applied Psy.*, Dec., 1921, pp. 340-349; Blanton, Margaret Gray, and Smiley, *What is the Problem of Stuttering?*, *Jour. Abnormal Psy.*, Feb., 1919,—reprinted in *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education*, 1919, pp. 340-350; *The University of Wisconsin Speech Clinic*, *Jour. Educ. Psy.*, May, 1916, pp. 253-260; *The Medical Significance of the Disorders of Speech*, *Jour. Amer. Med. Assoc.*, 1921, pp. 373-377; *Speech Defects in School Children*, *Mental Hygiene*, Oct. 1921, pp. 820-827; Scripture, E. W., *Stuttering and Lisping*, New York, Macmillan, 1923 (2nd ed.); Swift, W. B., *Speech Defects in School Children and How to Treat Them*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1918; Greene, *Speech Disorders*, 1926.

<sup>2</sup>Lyon, H. N., *The Speech of Animals*, *Science*, 1893, p. 324.

<sup>3</sup>Carruth, W. H., *The Language Used to Domestic Animals*, *Dialect Notes*, 1893, pp. 263-268.

of language. In it Wundt discussed such widely variant problems as the origin of language and the factors determining syntactical forms. An abridged edition of Wundt's monumental work has been published under the title *Elements of Folk Psychology*, in which several chapters are devoted to a discussion of language.

Wundt's work was productive of an enormous controversial literature. M. Delbrück challenged Wundt's position in *Grundfragen der Sprachforschung* (Strasbourg, 1901), and Wundt replied in *Sprachgeschichte und Sprachpsychologie* (Leipzig, 1901). Sütterlin,<sup>1</sup> Rozwadowski,<sup>2</sup> and many others, entered the discussion, and numerous books, articles and brochures appeared within a few years—many of them polemical. The articles range over the whole field of language psychology—origins of language, language structure, the "psychological" unit in language, phonetic laws, their application and their validity as explanations of particular linguistic phenomena, and so forth. No attempt has been made to summarize this literature, and while much of it is opinion supported by flimsy empirical, or doubtful anthropological data, language psychology would be much enriched by a critical review in English of the literature of this period. A fifth type of language investigation bulked largely in the literature of the last century, *viz.*, the genetic development of language. To this, Preyer, J. M. Baldwin, Tracy, Kirkpatrick, and others made significant contributions. After a period of desuetude this interest has again been revived, and is one of the major problems of genetic psychologists to-day.

The purpose of this preliminary review has been to indicate some of the major reasons for delay in the

<sup>1</sup>*Wesen der Sprachlichen Gebilde*, Heidelberg, 1902.

<sup>2</sup>*Wortbildung und Wortbedeutung*, Heidelberg, 1904.

development of an adequate psychology of modern language learning. These are briefly: (1) indefiniteness as to the functions to be developed by such training; (2) the influence of classical philology on the development of linguistic science, resulting in the persistence of an historical, rather than an empirical-experimental approach; (3) the diversity of interests of psychologists in linguistic processes, as a result of which only a few have given much attention to the specific problem of the present monograph.

The review has enabled us to trace the major steps in the development of linguistic psychology down to the experimental period. It is from this period that the larger body of psychological literature referred to in this monograph is drawn. To this experimental approach we now turn. We shall examine the results of numerous experiments in fields only indirectly related to the linguistic field, since many of the principles established seem to be of universal applicability.

It is obviously impossible, and indeed inadvisable, to attempt any detailed analysis of the problem of learning in this review. This task has been done by several authors,<sup>1</sup> and those interested are referred to the texts indicated for full discussions of the theories, methods, and results of experimentation. This bibliography has been selected with a view to presenting sample studies in most of the fields of investigation, with special attention to those that illustrate principles of general applicability. What will be attempted here is rather to outline the field in general, and to deal with a few problems that have figured most largely in the discussions of language learning in a more detailed fashion.

<sup>1</sup>Thorndike, E. L., *Educational Psychology*: vol. II, *Psychology of Learning*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1921. Meumann, E., *The Psychology of Learning*, Appleton, 1913. Pyle, W. H., *The Psychology of Learning*, Warwick and York, 1921. Sandiford, P., *Educational Psychology*, Ginn and Co. In press.



*The Nature of Learning*

As has been indicated above, the attempt to reduce the learning process to quantitative terms is a fairly recent event. Psychologists are accustomed to attribute the impulse in this phase of investigation to Ebbinghaus, whose major work appeared in the last quarter of the 19th century. Without attempting to evaluate this opinion, we may recognize that it was Ebbinghaus, and his contemporary Wolff, who first clearly formulated methods and devices for the investigation of memory processes. Pohlmann, Wundt, Meumann, and Koffka, in Germany, and Thorndike and Judd in the United States, have been leaders in devising new techniques, in formulating theory, and in applying the results obtained to pedagogical problems. To these men, and to students trained in their laboratories, we owe much of the knowledge we have of the nature of learning and the factors affecting it.

The first problem confronting the psychologist in the study of learning is the choice of the group of concepts with which he will make his analysis. He may think of learning in neurological terms, as do most physiologists and neurologists; he may describe it in terms of the more recent concept of conditioned reflex, following Pavlov; he may conceive it in psychological terms as the association of experiences—the traditional psychological terminology, scarcely concealed in Thorndike's "connection-bonds"; he may attempt an analysis of any learning task in terms of configurations, as does Koffka; or he may prefer to use two sets of concepts—neurological and psychological. An evaluation of these methods of approach is not in place here. Suffice it to say that the choice is not entirely arbitrary, but is determined, in part at least, by its



fruitfulness in suggesting usable experimental techniques. It is too early to predict which one will survive, or indeed, to assert that any one should survive to the exclusion of others. Most linguistic scholars are accustomed to think of learning as a process of association, thus aligning themselves with the traditional psychological school.

An analysis of the problems involved in learning is again dependent on the general psychology of the writer. It is customary to-day in referring to human learning to recognize three broad divisions:

(a) Habit formation, under which would be included walking, talking, writing, and such varied behaviour as control of anger and fear, control of bladder and bowel, etc. This is sometimes called sensori-motor or perceptual-motor learning.

(b) Perceptual learning—learning to recognize objects, words, people, etc., when seen, heard, touched or otherwise sensed.

(c) Ideational learning—under which are included memorizing, and rational learning, learning of meaning, etc.

Some psychologists group the latter two divisions together under the single term “ideational”.

### *Material Used*

Investigations of motor learning, or habit formation, by humans have been carried on with very diversified materials. Mazes in which a blindfolded student is required to learn to traverse a complicated path without error, puzzles, sorting of packs of cards into piles or boxes in accordance with some specified plan, ball tossing, type-writing, javelin throwing and telegraphy are a few of the materials on which studies have been based. In all of these, the somewhat artificial conditions of the laboratory

have been present, creating a situation which, as Thorndike points out, is probably conducive to more effort than is the case in the class-room.<sup>1</sup> Studies of oral habits, *i.e.* the growth of oral speech, have been made by counting all the sounds, syllables, or words voluntarily used by a child during a specified period of time, care being taken to place him in as large a variety of situations as possible. A second method has been to record all the sentences and phrases a child uses in a prescribed period and situation—on the theory that vocabulary growth may reveal itself more definitely in the groupings of principal words and modifiers than in an increase of isolated words. These are admittedly inadequate methods for investigating oral habits, since speaking includes many other variables—intonations, tunes, degrees of accuracy of pronunciation and enunciation, and so forth; but efforts to measure these directly have not to date proven effective. Numerous workers are attempting to devise instruments that will depict growth in several of these variables, notably, Metfessel, Barker and Russell. Dr. Buswell, in his monograph, *A Laboratory Study on the Reading of Modern Foreign Languages*, has applied a laboratory technique to the study of the formation of eye-movement habits in reading.

Perceptual and ideational learning have been studied with equally diverse materials, but four major groups may be indicated. One type of material is known as the “nonsense syllable”. A nonsense syllable was defined by Ebbinghaus, who first used this material extensively, as a single consonantal sound followed by a vowel or diphthong, and this in turn by another single consonant, the whole not being a word used in the conventional language of any people. There are few such syllables in English, and for

<sup>1</sup>*Op. cit.*, p. 159.

laboratory work in English-speaking countries, syllables consisting of a vowel and two consonants, or four letters with two vowels in the centre (*e.g. faig*) or a combination of two 2-letter groups, (*e.g. fr ag*) have been used. The advantages of these syllables can best be realized by a comparison with other possible material. Disconnected words, nouns or verbs for example, have been frequently used; connected passages of sense material, prose or poetry, have been the basis of several investigations; still others have used concrete objects and pictures. These latter types of material have certain advantages in that they are meaningful, and thus approximate somewhat more closely the problem of class-room learning. On the other hand, the meaningfulness of pairs of words is something that it is almost impossible to express in any quantitative way, and it is this factor of meaning which is one of the major elements in making a passage easy or difficult. Nonsense syllables are equivalent in meaning and difficulty, and for exact quantitative studies of such factors as the shape of the learning curve, the rate at which material is forgotten, the relative values of various lengths of study periods, it is obviously important to have materials as nearly comparable as possible. Since these are the problems on which most psychologists have been engaged, nonsense syllables are by far the most frequently used laboratory materials in experimental studies of memory learning.

Psychologists are keenly aware of the dangers of applying the results obtained from the use of such materials in specific situations. For this reason, Thorndike, Henmon, Lyon, Scholtkowska, Pargement, Hawkins, Calkins, and numerous others, have used sense words as material for experimental studies. This may seem warranted on the basis of greater similarity to the task in

hand, but we must not too readily assume that the sense word is the natural unit of language learning. This position has in fact been questioned by some, and directly denied by others<sup>1</sup>; the nonsense syllable may not, in fact, be much more artificial than pairs of sense words, or pairs of words, one of which is in the vernacular, and the other in a foreign language. All would agree that the closer the laboratory situation approximated that of the class-room or study, the more directly applicable the results would be. In his study of reading, Buswell was able to work with the actual learning situation; on the other hand, Libby's study, reviewed in this monograph, revealed the difficulties inherent in the control of class-room learning of vocabulary. We shall be compelled in this review to depend, in part at least, on studies made with nonsense syllables.

### *Analysis of Language Learning.*

That man is a learning animal will be accepted by all. That this learning begins at birth will probably be generally accepted; some psychologists (*e.g.* Watson) speak of pre-natal learning. Nor will there be any disagreement with the statement that one of the largest and most important types of learning done by any human being is the learning of a language. These generally accepted postulates, however, serve only to raise questions on which it is much more difficult to get agreement, and it may be well to examine a few of these in some detail.

Perhaps the most important of these difficulties arises in connection with the attempt to define language as a type of learning. Analysis may be attempted in several ways. One such method would be in terms of psychological processes involved, in which reference would be

<sup>1</sup>See a later section of this review, *The Natural Unit in Language Learning*.



made to the types of development that appear, *e.g.* perceptual, ideational. A second basis is suggested by the educational classification,—the forms of language learning would then be denoted by such terms as reading, speaking, aural interpretation, writing, and spelling. This form of analysis is familiar, and offers certain advantages in that a large body of psycho-educational experimentation is being carried on in each of these categories (Greene, Buswell, West).<sup>1</sup> It is in these terms also that discussions as to aims of language learning are usually stated. Yet a third possible basis is the statistical one (Van Wagenen and Kelley). The assumption is made that there exist language capacities or abilities, and tests are devised for their measurement. The number and variety of such abilities is evidenced by the correlation between test performances, it being assumed, for practical purposes at least, that a high correlation in test performances shows a marked community in the abilities involved in the tests, and that a low or negative correlation shows disparate abilities to be involved. In the study referred to the authors conclude that language is a concept that includes many divergent abilities. This third method is in line with recent work on the psychology of individual differences and we may expect continued efforts in this direction.

It may be well to illustrate a few of these analyses in greater detail. The student of general psychology, using the first method, would say that language is a concept under which are included at least four factors, or groups of factors; that it was a multiform process to be described as follows:

<sup>1</sup>N.B.—References in this section are given only when more than a single study from an author is included in the Bibliography, or when reference is made to articles not included in the Bibliography.

(1) It includes auditory and visual *perception*, *e.g.* learning to interpret certain sounds and signs as being (a) units, *e.g.* words, with meanings; (b) groupings of units, *e.g.* sentences or phrases<sup>1</sup> which may have meanings that vary with inflection, rhythm, intensity, facial expression, or general environmental situation.

(2) It involves the formation of habits, *e.g.* those involved in speaking, writing, reading aloud. As accompaniments to these habits, the learner must acquire certain gestures and bodily postures. All these must be learned in a certain social environment from which he will acquire particular inflections, rhythms, speech-tunes, etc., which will at once increase his skill in making himself understood in his immediate environment, but at the same time make him more difficult to understand in other communities.

(3) More fundamentally still, to learn a language means to learn to use the conventional signs (words, or groups of words, gestures, etc.) as designates for certain meanings. The child learns not merely the word "mother" as a percept or a habit; the word becomes associated for him with a large body of experiences—ideas, habits, emotions and so on. "Mother" is a person who does certain things, who dresses, talks and acts in a certain way, a person who comforts, cheers, scolds, or approves, a person who defends against injury, one who sets certain restrictions, one who arouses love or fear, or joy, or jealousy or gratitude in the child. These are illustrative of the wide "meaning" which a word may come to have for a child. The word then becomes a symbol for this meaning, and both in our own thinking and in our discussions with others the word is used as a substitute for

<sup>1</sup>This analysis is made without prejudice to the issue, to be discussed later, as to the "natural" or "psychological" unit in language learning.

part or all of this meaning. The meaning of a word includes then all experiences and all responses associated with it. Meaning is obviously never a fixed and restricted thing; it grows as new experiences occur.

In thinking, we use these language signs as tools or instruments. Thus in attempting to locate the cause of trouble with an automobile, our experience is a succession of words—carburetor, ignition, battery. These signs or words recur to us with their associated meanings, and on the basis of this meaning we accept or reject each possible source of the trouble. Abstract thinking requires language signs; words are used by man to denote his concepts, and language becomes the agency for analysis and synthesis. We need not pause to inquire whether the ability to have concepts or the ability to use language signs came first in the evolutionary history; certainly man's thought processes would not have developed very far without the agency of language. This has always been recognized in general psychology, and the re-phrasing of it by the Behavioristic school has not led to any change in the general position here indicated.

(4) But not all language ability is to be attributed to environment. Aside from the involved neuro-muscular apparatus which the child is provided with by inheritance,<sup>1</sup> and without which language learning would not be possible, there is a considerable functional equipment. This appears as the organism matures, regardless of the environment. Reference is here made to the vocal reflexes which, as Mrs. Blanton points out, begin with the birth cry. This same author (Blanton) has made an extensive study of the sounds that appear in the first few weeks of life. An analysis of these reveals a wide range

<sup>1</sup>Watson, J. B., *Psychology from the Standpoint of a Behaviorist*, chap. 9. Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott, 1924.

of consonantal and vowel sounds whose origin can hardly be other than native. The most thorough study of early language development known to the writer is that by Piaget, and is reviewed in this monograph. Although, as Watson points out,<sup>1</sup> this vocal habit is not strictly a language habit, it is important to recognize that the infant has this vocal equipment by virtue of inheritance, and to emphasize that language learning is really only a modification of these native responses. It is improbable that man would ever learn to speak if the infant were not by inheritance thus equipped with quite an extensive repertoire.

An analysis on the basis of educational processes involved may next be considered. The outline that follows was prepared by the writer as a guide to the selection of bibliography. It is here presented, not as a completed analysis, but rather as a scheme under which readers may wish to classify existent studies. Even a cursory examination of the bibliography will reveal how very little is known, of a scientific nature, on many of the topics enumerated. The outline will have served a purpose if it stimulates research on some of these issues:

### *Problems in Modern Language Learning*

#### *(Educational Classification)*

#### I. Learning to speak a foreign language.

- (a) Oral linguistic development in the vernacular.
  - genetic study of sounds used by child.
  - growth of oral vocabulary, quantitative and qualitative studies.
  - are there stages in the development of oral

<sup>1</sup>*Op. cit.*, p. 339.



language capacity? Is there any evidence of age differences in ease of sound formation? Causes?

—role of imitation.

—what factors determine selection of child's vocabulary?

—aphasia and other speech disturbances.

(b) Oral language development (foreign).

—what language sounds are found in French, German, Italian, Spanish, and not in English.

—transfer and interference in oral language.

—what motivations can be used to induce the child to use an alternative language habit.

—acquisition of speech-tune, intonation, etc.

—psychological and educational studies of growth of oral foreign language, factors affecting such growth.

—measurement of growth in oral language capacity, methods and results.

—desirable speed and quality, norms and standards.

—forgetting.

—relation of oral speech and other language processes.

## II. Learning to read a foreign language.

(a) Analysis of processes involved in reading a language.

—silent reading—span of perception.

—speed of perception.

—accuracy of perception.

—rhythm of perception.

—decrease of vocalization.

- interpretation, comprehension.
- skimming.
- oral reading —all factors enumerated under silent reading.
  - growth of eye-voice span.
  - errors in pronunciation, their causes and treatment.
  - types of oral reading errors, mispronunciation, omission, substitution, etc.
- (b) Eye-movements.
  - characteristics for age—of reading in vernacular.
    - of oral reading in the foreign language.
    - of silent reading in the foreign language.
    - of skimming.
  - pedagogical significance of bad habits of eye-movement.
- (c) Methods of learning to read in vernacular and foreign language, *e.g.* phonetic, word-method.
- (d) Development of reading ability in foreign language.
  - experimental studies of age and grade growth.
  - factors modifying development.
  - correlation of reading abilities, *e.g.* rate, accuracy, and span of perception with comprehension.
  - relation of reading ability to oral and written vocabularies.
- (e) Reading material.
  - sequence—factual and informative.

- what do we mean by saying that some passages are difficult?—vocabulary? sentence structure? logic?
- the grading of reading material, standard for classification.
- (f) Backwardness in reading—diagnosis, causes and treatment.
- (g) Motivation of reading.

### III. Spelling.

- analysis of abilities involved.
- value of concept of image-types.
- general psychology of spelling.
- teaching methods, evaluation, *e.g.* list and context methods.
- the spelling vocabulary, and its grade placement.
- measurement of spelling abilities in foreign languages.
- errors, their causes and treatment.
- the concept of special disability in spelling.
- correlation of abilities involved in spelling vernacular and foreign languages.

### IV. Writing a foreign language.

- (a) Abilities involved that are specific to modern languages.
- (b) Learning—the learning curve.
  - value of imitation.
  - use of models.
  - distribution of practice.
  - desirable accuracy and skill, norms for quality and speed.

## V. Foreign language composition and grammar.

- analysis of abilities, types of compositions in foreign languages.
- measurement and growth, age and grade.
- analysis of text-book practices and examination requirements.
- frequency counts of idioms, syntactical forms.
- correlation, transfer and interference of grammar and composition.
- study of errors, their diagnosis and treatment.
- transfer to and from other languages.

## VI. Auditory interpretation of a foreign language.

- unit of perception, development of speed and span of perception.
- influence of home and social environment.
- relation to oral and written vocabularies.
- development of speed and span of perception.
- mode of interpretation—action, translation, concrete imagery.
- age, sex, and other differences.
- transfer.
- backwardness.
- forgetting and re-learning.

## VII. General—children's interests in language learning.

The various authors, whose articles appear in the bibliography, adopt one or other of these types of analysis. Sweet, Palmer, Kirsten, Bagley, MacDougall, and others, analyse language in terms of association. Thus Sweet defines language learning as a process of forming associations of words and sentences with thoughts,



ideas, actions and events. In his recent book, Palmer adopts the terminology of the third school, and divides the capacities underlying language into two groups; (*a*) spontaneous (native) capacities, and (*b*) studial capacities, the former being employed by a child in learning to speak a language, the latter in learning to read and write it. The native abilities, it is proposed, become latent with increasing age, and as a consequence an adult cannot learn to speak a foreign language as readily as a child. Brandenburg and Van Wagenen and Kelley attempt, by statistical investigations, to discover facts relative to the constitution and development of language abilities.

Other writers on the psychology of language have been concerned to analyse it rather in terms of its genetic development and the relationship of this to mental processes. Thus De Laguna, Delacroix and Kappert note stages in the development of language, Kappert recognizing three distinct levels which, he claims, must be recognized if the pedagogy is to be effective. Thus from eight to thirteen the child requires a direct method, from thirteen to sixteen a grammatical method, and from sixteen onwards a translation method. Experimental evidence of such marked changes in mental life is not forthcoming and we are of the opinion that no theoretical warrant can be advanced in support of Kappert's thesis.

Reference should be made in passing to a type of inquiry such as is represented by the studies of Raymond and Meillet. It is difficult to see any psychological or educational value in such studies, however interesting they may be from the standpoint of anthropology or philology. The same must be said with regard to the controversy between Gouin, Eggert, Robert and Goldberger, on the one hand, and Ollendorff and Reaman on the other, as to the psychological priority of the noun or

verb. Both functions are involved in any act of speech, explicitly or implicitly, and any attempt to isolate one for preferment in a learning situation is to come dangerously close to the question of the priority of the egg and the chick. On the other hand, the discussions by De Laguna and Cummings, as to whether a word or a sentence is the natural unit of thought, deal with a serious psycho-educational problem.

One is struck by the dearth of literature on the question of linguistic disability. Hagboldt<sup>1</sup> recommends certain therapeutic measures for those defective in word-memory; Stocker in two articles draws attention to the importance of speech tunes, and evaluates methods by which they may be secured. These studies approximately exhaust the data on the question. No information is apparently available on the frequency or degree of spelling disability, reading disabilities, or phonetic incapacity in foreign languages comparable to those of Gates and Hollingworth for English.

### *The "Natural" Unit of Language Learning.*

The heading adopted to designate this section may require some explanation. It is not intended to refer to the controversy between Ollendorff and Gouin as to whether the noun or the verb is the more important unit in language, but rather to examine the evidence on such questions as these: (1) What is the unit of perception in reading—the letter, syllable, word or groupings of words? (2) What is the unit of oral language learning? Is the word in any significant sense the unit, or is it rather a phrase or sentence? Has the spoken word by itself any significance in the language of the child or the

<sup>1</sup>*How to Study Modern Languages in College.*

adult? (3) Similarly in aural interpretation is there any warrant for considering the word as the language element from a psychological point of view? By "psychological" we mean a unit that is the most effective for the purpose in hand. Thus if a person is learning to interpret a foreign language, when he hears it spoken will his learning be most effective if the teaching is done with isolated words, or phrases, or sentences? Gouin claims that his series of sentences is the "natural" method, on the ground that a foreign language sentence accompanying an act best ensures that the learner will learn to recognize vocabulary, intonation, inflection and so forth in this way.

It must be admitted that there is not adequate evidence on all of these questions. Most experimental work has been done on the "unit" of reading.

As early as 1885, Grashey<sup>1</sup> from his observations of aphasic cases advanced the claim that the unit of perception in reading was the letter and not the word. This position was apparently accepted by Wernicke. Goldscheider and Mueller,<sup>2</sup> however, reported an experimental investigation in which they found that there is no reason to believe that in ordinary reading each letter is perceived. Words are recognized (when read) as simultaneous wholes, with certain letters, particularly those extending above the top of the vowels, *e.g.*, *t, b*, acting as "determining" letters. Cattell<sup>3</sup> demonstrated that the time required to recognize or perceive a word is no longer than that required for a letter, that the familiarity of the

<sup>1</sup>*Ueber Aphasie und ihre Beziehung zur Wahrnehmung, Arch. f. Psych. u. Nervenkrankheit*, 1885, pp. 654-689.

<sup>2</sup>Goldscheider and Mueller, R. F., *Zur Psychologie und Pathologie des Lesens, Ztsch. f. Klinische Med.*, Vol. 23, 130-167.

<sup>3</sup>*Ueber die Zeit der Erkennung, u.s.w., Phil. Studien*, 1885, pp. 634-650.

material played an important part in determining the speed of perception. Pillsbury<sup>1</sup> provided further evidence on the question in an investigation in which he used a mutilated text. He discovered that mutilations might be overlooked altogether and the reader not be aware of defective letter formations, if the context were meaningful. Erdmann and Dodge<sup>2</sup> point out that the number of eye movements is much smaller in reading the mother tongue, where the context is familiar, than it is in reading a foreign language that is less familiar, a position further developed by Buswell. Four to five times as many letters can be read when the context is familiar sense material. The evidence is unanimous that in reading we perceive not by letters, but by words or even phrases. These studies represent an experimental approach to the problem of the "natural" or psychological unit in reading. In learning English reading the principle has become generally adopted that the natural unit may be a word or several words, but rarely, if ever, a letter, and we believe the same to be true in modern language reading.

Sparkman suggests another method of determining the "natural" unit—what he calls a "rhythmic sense group". For a definition of this unit the reader is referred to the bibliography. Still another unit, called the "breath" unit, is referred to in educational literature. How far these latter two have any significance in speed and comprehension of silent reading, or in the speed, comprehension and pronunciation of oral reading, or how far the units tend to be correlated with each other we are unable to say. The "visual-perception" unit, experimentally determined in the manner indicated above, is

<sup>1</sup>*The Reading of Words*, A.J.P., 1895, pp. 315 ff.

<sup>2</sup>*Psychologische Untersuchungen ueber das Lesen auf Experimenteller Grundlage*. Halle, 1898.



the only one on which educational practice can be formulated to-day.

The unit of oral speech is still more difficult to define. Brooks<sup>1</sup> points out that speaking requires the simultaneous and continuous action of at least three sets of muscles: the respiratory muscles of the chest and abdomen; the laryngeal, which control the tension of the vocal cords; and those of the tongue, jaw and palate, which control and form the sound. Following Scripture<sup>2</sup> and Paul, he points out that "in uttering a word or phrase" there are "no stops or pauses for letters, syllables or even words . . . When a sentence is read the words in it do not have exactly the same sounds as when they are read merely as a list of words. Speech habits are so complex that a word cannot always be given the same sound by itself as when it is part of a sentence".<sup>3</sup> Approximately the same position is advanced by Sallwuerk, who objects to the learning of isolated words, on the ground that they have no constant meaning and are continually being modified subjectively by the listener and the speaker. "Phonetics" says Sallwuerk, "cannot be taught by isolated sounds, nor can a language by isolated words".<sup>4</sup> Students of genetic psychology would on the whole agree with G. A. De Laguna, that the beginnings of language in the infant are sentence-words—words that function as sentences. From the beginning, this author points out, the baby "when he is not indulging in pure vocal play, is talking in complete, if rudimentary sentences".

The need for evidence on the questions raised in this section is not merely academic. Psycho-educational

<sup>1</sup>*The Applied Psychology of Reading*, chap. V. New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1926.

<sup>2</sup>*Elements of Experimental Phonetics*. New York, Scribners, p. 450.

<sup>3</sup>*Op. cit.*, p. 47.

<sup>4</sup>Quoted from Paul, M. H.

investigations of foreign language learning should approximate as closely as possible, in content at least, to the real learning situation of the class-room. Kappert's observation, that it is of little value to acquire a vocabulary by learning word-pairs, may well be held to imply that little direct evidence on the learning of a foreign language can be gleaned from the study of such word-pairs. This principle would cause the rejection of most of the evidence accumulated to date, since these studies have used just such material as Kappert criticizes.

### *Bilingualism.*

An attempt has been made to include in the bibliography the major studies on this problem. The psychological problems of significance in this question have been clearly recognized by the various investigators. No one doubts that a person may become bilingual. No one doubts that bilingualism can be more readily acquired in infancy than in late adolescence. On the other hand there are many who doubt whether an adult who has always been a monoglot ever can become a thorough-going bilingualist. The crucial tests of bilingualism are, (1) whether the individual can learn to think in both languages with equal facility and accuracy, (2) whether simultaneous learning of two languages (as in infancy) sets up interference or retards linguistic and conceptual processes, and, (3) whether bilingualism can remain as a permanent, or relatively permanent acquisition. Ronjat's study is most painstaking, but his findings are seriously limited in their general applicability. The environment in which Louis lived would be hard to duplicate. Dr. Ronjat found that Louis became bilingual at the end of about four years; that Louis' slowness in speech development, if present at all, was not due to bilingualism; and

that, as an adult, Louis observed a certain autonomy in each language, in that he did his best literary work in German, his *Muttersprache*, but his mathematical work in French, the language in which he had received his mathematical training. The studies of Saer, Smith and Hughes show that monoglots in rural districts in Wales are superior, both as children and as late adolescents, to bilingualists from the same communities, and attribute the differences to interference caused by bilingualism. They show warranted caution in interpreting their results, but the data can in no sense be interpreted as indicating an intellectual advantage in bilingual training for a child. The case study by Kollarits is included as illustrating certain types of difficulty experienced by persons of average intelligence in acquiring control of a second language without instruction. Epstein's investigations, though lacking in the rigorous technique of the Welsh study, are of profound educational significance. He asserts that bilingualism is obtainable, but that it interferes with clear thinking and definite expression, and recommends that it be reduced to a minimum in speaking and writing. With this position Stern agrees.

Little difficulty is found in getting expressions of opinion on the question of ability to think in a foreign language. Thus Williams is convinced that it is not possible; Tomb attributes a "subconscious awareness" of meaning to children in a bilingual country, a form of intuition that apparently does not persist; Polle<sup>1</sup> asserts with regard to a bilingual people in Lusatia that they "generally refuse when they are asked to translate from one language to another", but that they can "without

<sup>1</sup>Polle, F., *Wie denkt das Volk über die Sprache*, Leipzig, 1889. (Quoted from Jespersen, *How to Teach a Foreign Language*, pp. 52-53).

difficulty repeat in German a tale . . . heard in Wendish and *vice versa*." This statement should be placed alongside of the investigations reported in this bibliography.

Evidence as to the persistence of bilingualism in a monolingual environment is not at hand in any of the studies observed by the writer. Nor are there any critical studies of the relative facility with which children and adults can become bilingual. It is generally assumed that there is an advantage in favour of the child, and authors have been concerned chiefly with adducing reasons for this hypothesized superiority. Thus Ronjat attributes it to the lack of linguistic standards, differences in motivation, lack of interference, and especially to the ability (later lost) of the child to emit "Krähen" in the pre-linguistic days. Epstein suggests a greater flexibility of the speech organs, and deficient mastery of the vernacular as the causal factors. The study by Ronjat of infantile sounds shows that the infant produces in the first few months of life many more sounds than are found in the vernacular.<sup>1</sup> Psychologists are inclined to describe the learning of an oral language as the fixing of certain habits, involving a selection, by reward or disapproval, of a certain group of sounds from the large native repertoire of the infant. This explanation is directly in accord with those of Epstein and Ronjat.

Perhaps there is no problem in language learning of more vital significance to persons on this continent than that associated with bilingualism. Large groups of our population are perforce bilingual, a circumstance which language teachers have been eager to encourage. It is not probable that the final word has been written on the problem, and educationists should welcome the oppor-

<sup>1</sup>Cf. Sechehayé, *op. cit.*



tunity to investigate thoroughly the intellectual and educational resultants of bilingualism in children.<sup>1</sup>

*Influence of Method of Presentation on Learning*

An extensive psycho-educational literature is available on the question of the relation between the mode of presentation and learning. Handschin<sup>2</sup> in his important treatise reviews much of the psychological literature on the question, and concludes, "If the fourfold learning of language is to be accomplished, the first approach should be aural, the second, oral".

On perhaps no problem in learning is the evidence more contradictory. Flagstad emphasizes the importance of motor activity on the part of the learner. O'Brien, too, adduces evidence in support of saying the word aloud. Zuccari shows that suppression of articulation seriously interferes with learning. Pohlmann found that the results obtained from auditory presentation of sense-material, *i.e.* words and objects, were on the whole better than with visual presentation, and that with nonsense syllables visual presentation showed a decided superiority, due, Meumann suggests, to the difficulty of analysing unfamiliar words into phonetic elements, when the words are auditorily presented<sup>3</sup>. In another study Pohlmann reports that in a girls' school visual presentation was superior for sense material, a result that Meumann describes as "remarkable". Contrary to Flagstad, this

<sup>1</sup>Cf. Jorgenson, P., *op. cit.* and Lentz, F., *op. cit.*

<sup>2</sup>*Methods of Teaching Modern Languages*, 1923. See chap. I., pp. 20-47.

<sup>3</sup>Meumann states that "Since visual presentation has been shown to be especially advantageous with unfamiliar words, Pohlmann correctly infers that visual presentation has great significance in the teaching of foreign languages and that the purely auditory method or vocal method which is now being recommended, is one-sided and unwarranted".—*Psychology of Learning*, p. 155. This conclusion seems to have been underestimated by Handschin in his summary of the experimental findings.

same investigator reports that the introduction of articulation influenced the results unfavourably. Meumann, summarizing Pohlmann's data, shows that the superiority of auditory presentation holds only with young children; later the positions become gradually reversed<sup>1</sup> for sense material, and attributes this change to the methods of teaching employed. Münsterberg and Bingham found that "a series of presentations to two senses at the same time is much more easily reproduced than if given only to sight or to hearing". Henmon, in a carefully controlled study, demonstrated the superiority of auditory presentation for adults in the case of nouns, nonsense syllables and numbers, when tested by immediate recall. It is of little purpose to go further in review of these data. Enough has been said to show that totally contradictory results appear in the studies to date. Several additional reviews are included in this monograph.<sup>2</sup>

It is not easy to explain the divergent findings. The question is inextricably bound up with the old theory of imagery-types (Betts, Angell, Segal, Handschin). The first empirical study of imagery-types was published in 1860 by Fechner in his *Psychophysik*, but it is from Galton, F., *Enquiry Into the Human Faculties*, 1880, that we owe the inauguration of the studies of the first two decades of this century. Galton contended that scientific men were weak in their powers of visual imagery; that keenness of imagery was an hereditary trait, stronger in females than in males. Persons could be divided into types according to the kind of imagery dominant in their ideational life, and could be classified as motor-minded, eye-minded, etc. This theory was taken over by edu-

<sup>1</sup>See Hawkins, C. J., *op. cit.*, for similar results.

<sup>2</sup>Cf. Winch, W. H.; Schiller, V. H.; Erickson and King, I.

cationists, who proposed that ear-minded people required auditory presentation, eye-minded required visual presentation, etc. The theory is indefensible in the light of recent experimental investigations. Only a small percentage of persons, if indeed any, use one type of imagery exclusively; persons with keen imagery of one sort are likely to have relatively clear imagery in other sense-departments (Henmon, Netschajeff, Betts). Even if imagery-types did exist, it would be difficult to get a reliable diagnosis of this fact (Angell). As a matter of fact the type of imagery used by an individual alters with slight alterations in conditions (Angell). As a particular instance of the attempt to apply the imagery-type theory to problems of learning we might note Schmidt's contention that the visual type "are by nature rapid readers . . . the motor type, on the other hand, tends to represent the slowest readers. There can be little doubt that rapid readers fall almost exclusively into two classes": good visualizers and those of the auditory type who are learning to scan.

To return now to the explanation of the contradictory results obtained in comparisons of method of presentation. To the writer the problem is a fruitless one, for the following reasons:

(a) Much reading and much thinking may go on without any discoverable imagery.

(b) The sense department in which a subject matter is presented is not of necessity the one in which it is recalled.

(c) The type of imagery used (if any), in recall of words, objects, etc., depends to a considerable degree on the immediate environment, and largely on previous training.

(d) The important neurological process in learning is

not the receptor, but rather the cortex. It probably makes little difference (except that due to previous training) by what endorgan the stimulus is received (provided it is "adequate"), as long as the integrity of the cortex is assured. Differences in the speed and accuracy of reading, thinking, recognizing, or what not, are dependent on a central rather than a peripheral process.

If this interpretation is correct, it makes but little difference whether the presentation is auditory or visual or one requiring articulation so long as two criteria are met: (1) that it stimulates the student to active effort; for learning goes on only when the subject is active; it is never a process of "passive absorption"; (2) that it provides practice in doing the type of thing the student wants to know. If it is desired to form an oral speech habit, articulation must be an important part of the method; if the emphasis is on silent reading, the student must be practised in rapid visual recognition, since this is the function he wishes to use. As Judd points out there is no one best method, and this is especially so in connection with the sense department to which presentation is made.

### *Factors Affecting Learning.*

#### *Distribution of Learning*

One of the most significant groups of studies on the factors affecting learning is that concerned with the length of practice periods, and their optimum distribution. A large number of studies are now available on this question, for the majority of which the reader is referred to one of the general texts on the psychology of learning—several are included in this bibliography.



Pyle, in a study of the learning of an artificial language by college students found that of four periods, 15, 30, 45 and 60 minutes respectively, the 30-minute period gave the best results. This conclusion is in agreement with all other studies on the matter; it is short, intensive study periods that educate. Lyon, using nonsense syllables, prose and poetry; Pyle, using an artificial language; Murphy, studying javelin throwing, and Austin, in a study of the learning of sense material, compared the values of concentrating the learning in short periods of time with those resulting from distributing practice in various ways. Pyle found that it was better to have one practice period a day than one period every other day or twice a day; Murphy found no appreciable difference in learning a motor skill between daily and alternate-day practice; Lyon and Austin found that the "best distribution" depended in part on the type of material (no difference with sense material, Pyle), and in part on the time of recall (no difference when learning was tested immediately). Robinson found that there was a lower limit to length of practice period, and a maximum lapse of time between practice periods in learning digits. It is probable (1) that short learning periods, even a half-hour in length, provided they are intensive, are the most economical for high school and college students, (2) that repetitions more frequent than twice a day do not give the optimum results.

### *Influence of Attitude*

As Douglass<sup>1</sup> points out in a recent review of the literature on this point, the new attitude toward interest as a factor in learning makes this topic an important one. He quotes Meumann, "We profit by continuous practice

<sup>1</sup>*Certain Phases of Memory, Ped. Sem.*, 1927, p. 109.

only in proportion as we incite the will to progress or arouse an intention on the part of the learner to improve. The mere repetition of an act, though it be repeated daily, is by no means sufficient to bring about an improvement in the execution of the act”.

Four studies have been selected for this bibliography, those of Swift,<sup>1</sup> Aall, Panicelli, Boswell and Foster. Aall and Panicelli report investigations in which one group of students was warned as to the correct date of an examination on material they had been learning and one group either misinformed or not warned at all. Aall found the former group superior by 4% to 18%, dependent on the content. Panicelli found this group superior by 28%. These data agree with the findings of Peterson and other investigators. Boswell and Foster had four subjects learn for permanent retention two series of sixteen pairs each of Chinese-English words. The number of subjects was small and the differences found were slight, but the authors report some evidence in favour of the opinion that intention to retain affects retention. The study should be repeated.

### *Economical Unit*

H. Douglass, in a study already referred to, reviews the experimental data accumulated on this question since 1900. The point at issue is whether it pays to learn a poem, a vocabulary, a motor act such as writing or skating, as a complete unit (whole) or by breaking it into sections (part). Only a few studies on this question are included in the bibliography. Despite the numerous investigations, the question cannot be considered as settled. Steffens, Meumann, Pyle, and Snyder and Lakenan have found the whole method superior in

<sup>1</sup>*Studies in the Psychology and Physiology of Learning.*

memorizing sense material, word-lists and nonsense syllables. On the other hand, Pechstein, Reed, and others, have found the part method superior; the former reporting an adaptation of the part method to be the better for learning both a motor habit and lists of nonsense syllables, and the latter reporting an investigation made with meaningful material. Apparently there is no one single principle that covers all the cases, but the variables causing this disturbance have not yet been isolated. S. C. Parker recommends that elementary movements in oral speech should be learned as parts of complex acts rather than in isolation. It may be necessary to draw out some parts of a vocal habit for special practice, but at the earliest opportunity it should be fitted back into the complete act.

### *Influence of Context*

F. M. Hamilton, H. Eng, A. Balban, and W. Libby are agreed that learning a vocabulary is much more effective when the words are learned in a context such as paragraphs or sentences (Hamilton, Eng) or when they can be associated by the learner with other experiences (Balban). When students were encouraged to think of associations of words, they were able to acquire eight times as many as when the words were learned in a mechanical fashion. Tests after a lapse of time showed even greater relative superiority. This suggests the importance of taking time in vocabulary learning to acquire associations beyond those of mere juxtaposition. Libby's experiment showed that, as a rule, short sentences could be retained better than an equivalent number of disconnected words. Meaning is a powerful aid to learning.

*Influence of Rhythm*

Few experimental studies have been made on the influence of rhythm in learning, but its general value is universally recognized. C. F. Sparkman advances the interesting thesis that continuous reading matter is made up of a sequence of rhythmic sense groups somewhat analogous to the eye-span in silent reading. He defines the group as one limited by an initial and final pause and pronounced as an uninterrupted succession of syllables, marked by a symmetrical movement of utterance and recurring stress. The group is not to be confused with the breath group. Sparkman recommends its use as the psychological unit in oral reading. The suggestion merits experimental investigation.

*Rate of Learning*

Three studies dealing with different aspects of the rate of presentation of material have been selected for consideration. R. S. Woodworth demonstrated in an investigation of the learning of pairs of Italian-English words that the pairs learned most quickly were recalled best. Both the rapidity of learning and the efficiency of the retention of certain pairs may be attributed to the presence of associations with these pairs. D. O. Lyon showed that speed of learning and excellence of retention were highly correlated when the material used was logically coherent, but that when the material was not of this type the reverse was true. J. N. Curtis showed that rapid learning seemed to be somewhat more fatiguing than slow learning. She points out that a decision on this matter is extremely difficult to make because of the many variables involved.

*Errors*

Very few careful studies of errors in written or spoken



foreign language learning have been made. Three such studies appear in the bibliography. Ronjat noted the tendency on the part of Louis to borrow words directly from one language for use in another or to adapt them phonetically. This borrowing was both of words and syntax. It tended to disappear in later life. Kirkman attributes grammatical inaccuracies to a failure to carry practice up to the point of fixing the habit—failure to overlearn. Orton reports an investigation and classification of errors in spelling French. The number of subjects is limited and the author recognizes that a much wider study is required before a reliable statement of relative difficulty of language forms can be made. (See vol. I of *Modern Language Instruction in Canada* for a chapter entitled *Typical Errors in French Examination Papers*.)

### *Repetition versus Recall*

The problem here is the relative values of two methods of memorizing, *e.g.*, words or poetry: (*a*) continued re-reading, (*b*) alternate reading and attempted recall. This question has been investigated by both European and American psychologists. In an early study, Thorndike investigated the relative values of the two methods of learning paired words. He reported that eleven of twenty-eight students showed no superiority of performance in the method involving recall. Seibert, in an experiment on the learning of a French vocabulary, studied the relative merits of three methods: (1) continuous silent reading, (2) continuous oral reading, (3) oral reading alternating with attempted recall in writing. She found that reading aloud (method 2) was the most effective, but that students who did well by one procedure did well in the others.

The remaining investigations included in this monograph are unanimous in finding alternate reading and recall the more effective method. Witasek shows that this holds true regardless of the point at which recitation is introduced, except that a few readings, say five or six, should be made first as a means of avoiding error in recall. The same conclusions are reported by Katzaroff and Gates. The latter, in one of the best controlled studies reported, shows that early introduction of recitation is wasteful of time, discouraging, and a source of error. But he agrees with Katzaroff in his general findings, and points out that the value of recitation shows even more definitely in delayed than in immediate recall. Kuhn<sup>1</sup> shows that the superiority of recall holds for a large variety of subject matter, but especially for nonsense materials, and that it is greater for delayed response. He attributes this to the fact that it requires more attentive observation, more careful analysis, and so forth.

A somewhat allied phase of learning is dealt with in articles by Zuccari and by Mould, Treadwell and Washburn. It is a well-known fact that silent reading is accompanied by "inner speech", a form of sub-vocal talking. This phenomenon has been extensively investigated, especially in France and in the United States. Watson,<sup>2</sup> in his analysis of thinking, describes it largely as sub-vocal talking. These sub-vocal habits, "implicit" as contrasted with "explicit" habits in overt speech, may be made more and more implicit by training. If they persist in any overt form they tend to slow up the rate of reading. Can they be suppressed altogether, and if so, with what results? Various forms of inhibition are used—voluntary inhibition, distraction, and so forth. The two

<sup>1</sup>*Zeitschrift f. Psych.*, 1914, pp. 396-481.

<sup>2</sup>*Psychology from the Standpoint of a Behaviorist*, chap. 9.

studies referred to agree that suppression of articulation in learning lowers efficiency of learning. In Zuccari's experiment the loss was so great that 70% more time was required to bring the material up to the same level of efficiency as obtained when articulation was allowed.

### *Influence of Method*

Most experiments on method suffer from three restrictions: (1) the methods used select only parts of the principles involved in the direct and indirect methods, (2) the material learned consists of paired lists of words, a content that, as has been pointed out, may not adequately sample language learning,<sup>1</sup> (3) they cover a brief period of time. Five studies of vocabulary learning are reviewed in some detail in the bibliography—those of Schleuter, Scholtkowska and Schoenherr in Germany, of Pargement in the United States and of West in India. Lack of uniformity in terminology makes comparison of results difficult, but the following suggestions seem to be implied in the conclusions advanced by the authors: (1) Ticknor, Judd and others are correct in asserting that there is no one best method; the method to be used varies with the skill and interest of the teacher, the age of pupils, the linguistic surroundings in which learning is proceeding, and so forth. Until experimental evidence is adduced we must conclude that the claims for a universal superiority of any method are matters of faith, rather than of evidence. (2) No one method as used by teachers of language is "pure", *i.e.*, the distinction between methods tends in practice to break down. This mixing of methods may be done by either the pupil or the teacher or both (Schleuter). (3) The results obtained vary according to

<sup>1</sup>See *supra*, *Analysis of Language Learning*.

the type of test applied (Pargement, Scholtkowska, Schleuter); according to the period of learning that has preceded (Pargement); and without doubt to the method of teaching and learning to which the subjects were accustomed before the experiment was undertaken. (4) West's study is perhaps the most "practical" of any of those reported, in that it reports with exact quantitative data the results obtained in a regular class-room situation. This study illustrates the value of objective tests of achievement in measuring educational progress.

Other studies on method deal with improvement in still other aspects of language learning. Bovée reports an interesting experimental investigation of the influence of formal grammar on reading. He demonstrates that marked improvement in grammatical knowledge may be obtained without any corresponding increase in ability to interpret the thought of a passage, and, conversely, that there may be a decrease in grammatical knowledge accompanied by an increase in reading ability.

Price, Thomson and Richards report the examination of several hundred translations of French and Latin into English by high school students, and attributes the inferior English composition found in these, in large part, to a restricted English vocabulary and careless English style.

Cole's study of the relative values of free composition and translation methods in learning to write a foreign language found the former method the better. This is what we would expect, since the former method only amounts to specific practice in the function to be tested.

### *Influence of Type of Association*

Several psychological studies of association have been included in this bibliography—those of Kirkpatrick,



Calkins and Peterson. These have been concerned chiefly with the problem of the relative ease of learning, and permanence of retention of word-word associations, as contrasted with word-object associations. The studies have been accepted as implying an answer to the question in language methodology, as to whether the foreign word should be associated directly with the object or situation to which it refers, or to this object through the medium of a vernacular term. This has become one of the central points in the controversy over "direct" and "indirect" methods of teaching. The experiments here reported can be held to demonstrate: (1) that objects and movements are learned more readily and remembered better than their names. The differences are greater for delayed recall, and are quite marked; (2) linking an artificial language symbol directly with the object or movement to which it refers is more effective than linking it with another word (Peterson). The theoretical advantages of direct association are discussed by Judd in his *Psychology of High School Subjects*. In the sub-section of this review entitled *Influence of Context* yet other values of association in learning are indicated. Whether these studies can be held to support or condemn any of the teaching "methods" will depend on the extent to which the method is "pure" (*vide* Schleuter), and whether it approximates the methods used in these laboratory investigations.

### *Phonetics*

A large number of studies, hortatory, empirical and experimental, are included in this bibliography on the problem of phonetics. Only those belonging to the latter two classes are selected for mention here. D. Jones and Barrows describe methods of experimental investigation

in phonetics. Seydel has written an exposition of the work of the well-known phonetician Abbé Rousselot. Ballard asserts that about two per cent. of students are "sound-deaf and language-dumb". Cummings insists, on the basis of an extended teaching experience of African dialects, that beginners (in the absence of phonetic instruction) hear only their native sounds and substitute them for the real sounds of the language. Kirkman is so convinced of the importance of this fact that he recommends that foreign sounds should be taught before the corresponding letters are shown, lest the reader associate these letter patterns with the sounds of the mother tongue. Parker recommends simplified phonetic instruction with the attention of the learner directed to the objective result of the movement rather than upon the anatomic structures by which this is obtained. He suggests further that elementary movements in speech should be learned as parts of a complex act, *e.g.*, pronunciation of words or phrases, rather than in isolation. The reason for this is probably that cited by Kirkman, good pronunciation involves at least three things: (*a*) ability to pronounce specific sounds that do not occur in English, (*b*) correct stress, (*c*) correct intonation—the last two can be obtained only in the larger unit. Jones also indicates the importance of training in intonation as a supplement to phonetic instruction. Intonation is essential in conveying meaning.

Only two experimental studies are included. In the one made by Berlage the problem was the influence of lapse of time on imitation of the pitch of another's voice. Accuracy in this regard is greatest when the pause is from one to two seconds. If the tone is reproduced too quickly its pitch is usually too low.

Gates reports one of the few experimental studies on

the relative values of phonetic and non-phonetic methods of teaching reading of the vernacular to young children. On almost all criteria the non-phonetic method was as good as, or better than, the phonetic method. The author does not interpret his results to suggest the abandonment of phonetic instruction, but considers that there is serious need for determining the conditions, if any, under which phonetic instruction is superior.

### *Transfer and Interference*

The problems of transfer and interference (negative transfer) have received a large amount of attention from psychologists during the present century. It would be of little avail to review many experiments in detail. The general conclusions reached to date are summarized by Gates<sup>1</sup> thus:

“(1) The effect of training in one type of memory or perception or reasoning is usually a marked increase in the specific function trained.

(2) A relatively small improvement in memorizing, etc., when the form of learning or the material learned is different, even if only slightly different.

(3) Complete absence of transfer and negative transfer—that is, a loss of efficiency in one function due to improvement in another,—occasionally.”

An extensive critical review of the literature on transfer in general is given by Starch.<sup>2</sup> A review of the literature on the transfer values of classical languages has been published by E. D. MacPhee.<sup>3</sup>

In this monograph a considerable number of articles have been included. Not all of them have to do with

<sup>1</sup>*Elementary Psychology*, pp. 453-454. New York, Macmillan, 1925.

<sup>2</sup>*Educational Psychology*. New York, Macmillan, 1927.

<sup>3</sup>*The Transfer Values of the Classics, The School*, 1927, pp. 111-119.

transfer of foreign language abilities; an effort has been made rather to give sample studies in various phases of the problem. Thus Bode's article is concerned solely with a theoretical analysis of the concept of transfer. Bair's study has been included to demonstrate that two alternate responses to the same stimulus may operate without any interference, that learning a second response does not necessarily weaken the first. Dearborn and Brewer show that in perceptual-motor learning there may be no transfer from one act to another, even when the acts are apparently quite similar in nature. Cole's study of the influence of Latin on modern language learning typifies a statistical technique, the validity of which it is hard to measure. The intelligence factor was apparently under control, and the only obvious explanation of the superior standing of students who had had Latin in high school over those who had not, was the influence of the Latin training. Thorndike, in an extensive investigation of mental discipline with high school students, indicates the difficulty of drawing any such conclusion when all the other types of training received by these students are ignored. The same applies to the study reported by Swift.<sup>1</sup>

In most experimental studies of transfer two paired groups are used; a control group and a practice group. H. Woodrow<sup>2</sup> added a third group, who, in addition to some practice, were given instruction in the most effective methods of memorizing. These students, called the "trained" group, ranked highest after the period of training, and the control group, lowest. The experiment is interpreted by the author as indicating that a method of study may be transferred, and may be the most important factor in determining whether or not positive

<sup>1</sup>*Mind in the Making.*

<sup>2</sup>*Effect of Type of Training on Transference.*



transfer will be present. Fisher reports a year's experiment in the use of Esperanto as an introduction to the study of French. He found transfer to some processes, and interference with others. The students were a highly selected group.

Epstein and Jorgenson report two studies that are rather peculiar to modern languages. The former, in an empirical study of polyglot individuals, shows that while the two languages come to possess a certain autonomy (*cf.* Bair, Ronjat), interference may appear in both directions between the foreign language and the vernacular. Such interference may affect either the fluency or the clearness of both. It may show itself in five ways: (1) interference with pronunciation, (2) borrowing of words from one language to another, (3) confusion of grammatical forms, (4) altered placement of words, and (5) errors in the formulation of concepts.

Jorgenson's thesis is a type of controlled investigation that might well be duplicated for other languages and other types of language function. He inquired into the influence of novel phonetic elements in the spelling of English words by children from Danish-speaking homes. There are seven such elements common to English not found in the Danish tongue. He found no evidence that these offered any special difficulty to those children whose childhood language was Danish.

### *Effects of Practice*

As Thorndike points out in his *Psychology of Arithmetic*, the chief criticism of drill made by the psychologist is concerned with its distribution rather than as a phase of pedagogy. There is no alternative to drill, if it is desired to fixate a form of behaviour or to memorize for permanent retention a body of material. On the other

hand many text-books are arranged so that some habits are greatly overlearned, and others barely touched upon.

The chief psychological problems in connection with drill, or continued repetition, as it may be called, are: (1) does continued practice tend to make students more alike? (2) at what point in the practice curves is it possible to predict final efficiency? (3) does continued practice make it possible to learn larger amounts of material in a fixed time? To these problems it is hardly possible to give categorical answers. Kincaid<sup>1</sup> examined a large number of experimental investigations, and concluded that the level of ability shown in the early stages of practice is prognostic of later ability. Wells<sup>2</sup> shows that students tend to hold approximately the same relative positions in adding and cancellation before and after moderate degrees of practice. Practice does not eliminate individual differences; in fact its influence may be very slight.

A single experiment by Hollingworth<sup>3</sup> may be cited as an answer to the second question. He studied seven functions, and applied a correlation technique to his data. He found marked differences in the speed with which students reached a level at which reliable prediction could be made. Thus rate of colour naming could be predicted after five trials, adding after twenty trials, and discrimination of colours only after one hundred and fifty trials.

Thorndike<sup>4</sup> revealed little improvement in the number of pairs of words that could be learned in a specified time.

<sup>1</sup>*A Study of Individual Differences in Learning, Psych. Rev.*, 1925. pp. 34-53.

<sup>2</sup>*A.J.P.*, 1912, pp. 75ff.

<sup>3</sup>*Individual Differences Before, During and After Practice, Psych. Rev.*, 1914, pp. 1-8.

<sup>4</sup>*Memory for Paired Associates.*

This is apparently a function of maturity and general intellectual level, rather than of training.

There seems to be little doubt that few functions are practised to a point anywhere near the limit of learning. Psychologists are accustomed to draw a distinction between the "psychological" and physiological limits; the former being the level attained under a defined set of conditions; the latter is limited ultimately by speed of nerve impulse, and plasticity of the nervous system. A psychological limit is often unconsciously set by a teacher who then wonders at the relatively poor results which he obtains with his pupils.

With a few exceptions<sup>1</sup> any function can be improved if conditions and motives are arranged to secure it, no matter what the level now obtaining. Obviously under these conditions will come such factors as distribution of practice, attitude of learner, and other factors described in this review.

### *Miscellaneous Factors*

Busemann reports that the ease of learning is dependent on the part of speech, *i.e.*, noun, verb or adjective that is being learned. He found that nouns were remembered the best of all, probably because their meaning was better understood. R. F. Richardson discusses the influence of various factors on language learning. Henmon<sup>2</sup> demonstrates, in contradiction of Ebbinghaus, that the difficulty of learning does not increase proportionally with the increase of amount to be learned. Handschin gives a résumé of principles of learning based on experimental data. West and Banerjee report an investigation of evanescence, *i.e.*, the disappearance of ideas gathered in

<sup>1</sup>*Vide* Thorndike, *Educational Psychology*, vol. II, pp. 162-163.

<sup>2</sup>*The Relation between Learning and Retention and Amount to be Learned.*

reading in the interval between the reading and the review. The authors attribute this phenomenon in reading to the difficulty which students have in impressing ideas sub-vocally in a foreign language.

In conclusion, as has been observed in a prefatory note, the primary purpose of this review is to indicate issues in language learning in connection with which research is needed, and to provide a general plan under which such experimental investigations may be envisaged. Considerable psychological and educational research proves to be of little value because the results cannot be integrated into any system of concepts. Foreign language learning is only a form of language learning in general. If it is remembered that language is an anatomical, physiological, psychological, social and historical problem, it will be seen that there is opportunity for contributions from many varied groups of investigators. The task of the language teacher is to co-ordinate and integrate these studies into a pedagogy that secures fruitful effort on the part of students.



## I. WORKS OF REFERENCE

BRAUNHOLTZ, E. G. W.—*Books of Reference for Students and Teachers of French, a Critical Survey*. London, 1901. 80 pp. 4s. (Out of print, but copies can be obtained from Bowes & Bowes, Cambridge, England).

LIST of contents: Bibliographies; encyclopaedias; periodicals; literature generally; books and manuscripts; French literature; collections of extracts; French folklore; language generally; phonetics; history of the French language; old French; French dialects; Provençal; the teaching of French; French pronunciation; French spelling; modern French grammar; various handbooks for the study of French; colloquial French; French composition; French dictionaries; French metre; education in France; French society, institutions and manners; French history; French art; geography of France.

An excellent manual that ought to be brought up to date.

BREYMAN, H., STEINMÜLLER, G.—*Die neusprachliche Reform-Literatur von 1876-1909*. Eine bibliographisch-kritische Übersicht. Leipzig, Deichert, 1895-1909. Vols. 1-4. \$4.10.

UNDER the following headings publications are listed chronologically and accompanied by useful critical remarks by reviewers or by the editors: Theoretische Erörterungen; praktische Versuche; offizielle Verordnungen; öffentliche Verhandlungen; Rückblick. This bibliographical work provides a good review of the origins

and growth of the reform method movement, which, as Germans maintain, began in Germany, not with Viëtor<sup>1</sup> but with Klotzsch (1876), Viëtor (1882) however, giving the movement its greatest impulse. Breymann's bibliography includes the counter movement with which the name of Koschwitz is chiefly associated. For the period covered this is the most extensive bibliography of modern language methodology and contains information on such matters as realia, chrestomathies, vacation courses, international exchange of correspondence, the use of songs, phonograph, etc.

The good effects of the reform method are summarized by Breymann in 1895 as follows: "Man kann sogar noch weiter gehen und getrost behaupten, dass eine nicht geringe Zahl von thätigen, energischen, geistig regsamen und selbständig denkenden Lehrern schon etwas Besseres gefunden hat. Die Aussprache wird weit genauer, gründlicher und wissenschaftlich richtiger gelehrt, indem die Ergebnisse der Lautphysiologie dabei verwertet werden; die Grammatik steht nicht mehr im Vordergrund, sondern wird in der Hauptsache auf induktivem Wege gewonnen im engsten Anschluss an die vorausgegangene Lektüre, welche in den Mittelpunkt des Unterrichts gerückt worden ist; die Übersetzungen in die fremde Sprache sind beschränkt und z.T. durch Umformungen oder freie stilistische Arbeiten ersetzt worden; auch wird der freie mündliche Gebrauch der fremden Sprache eifriger betrieben; endlich strebt man jetzt dahin, den Schüler in die eigenartige geistige und materielle Kultur, in die Gebräuche und Sitten der fremden Völker unter Benutzung von Landkarten, Abbildungen, Stadtplänen, kulturhistorischen Illustrationen, etc., einzuführen."

<sup>1</sup>See however p. 17 for the influence of Sayce and Sweet.

In the third part (1905) a powerful reaction against extreme applications of the method is recorded, a middle course of compromise between the reform and grammatical methods now being favoured. "Die Periode von 1882-1898 bedeutet den Beginn, die Ausgestaltung und das erfolgreiche Vordringen der Reform. Die Zeit vom Wiener bis zum Leipziger Neuphilologentage (1898-1900) bezeichnet den Höhepunkt; mit Walter's Schrift, 'Die Reform des neuspr. Unterrichts auf Schule und Universität, mit einem Nachwort von Viëtor' (1901), beginnt der Umschwung in den Erfolgen der Reformer. Der früher latente Widerstand tritt jetzt an die Öffentlichkeit. Von allen Seiten ziehen zielbewusste und energische Streiter gegen die extreme Reform auf den Plan. Die offenen Absagen an die Reform werden immer zahlreicher, ihre Anhänger sehen sich in die Defensive gedrängt. Auf dem Breslauer Tage, der zu Pfingsten 1902 stattfand, holen sich die Reformer die erste Schlappe, indem alle Anträge und Thesen mit zu hoch gespannten Wünschen unter lebhaftem Widerspruch abgelehnt werden oder doch infolge des mässigen Einflusses *Münchs*, *Stengels* u. a. eine derartige abgeschwächte Formulierung erhalten, dass sie geringen Anlass zu Bedenken geben.

Endlich bringt der Kölner Tag (1904), wenn auch keine Niederlage, da Walter durch sein persönliches Eingreifen seine Zuhörer zu faszinieren weiss, so doch einen entschiedenen Rückzug der radikalen Reformpartei.

Es steht zu hoffen, dass der Tag zu München (1906), den in Breslau etwas voreilig proklamierten *Kompromissfrieden* für den Reformstreit definitiv erbringen werde!"

In this same part the advantages and disadvantages of the reform method are briefly summarized:<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>A summary in English will be found on pp. 18 ff.

“Wert und Unwert der Reform. Zu den positiven Errungenschaften der Reform; die, wie Münch sagt, durchaus in Geltung und Pflege bleiben oder allgemein dazu gelangen müssen, möchte ich folgende zählen:

1. Heilsame, kräftige Aufrüttelung der neuspr. Lehrer, welche durch die Schablonisierung und die handwerksmässige Unterrichtsweise an der Hand der Plötz'schen und ähnlicher Lehrmittel der Verknöcherung und Erstarrung anheimzufallen drohten.

2. Bessere Vorbildung der Lehrer, teils durch den Aufenthalt im Ausland, teils durch Ferienkurse im In- und Ausland, durch Univ.-Lektoren, durch fleissiges Studium der Phonetik, welche die Lehrer befähigt die Natur der fehlerhaften Laute zu erkennen und Anleitung zum Richtigsprechen zu geben.

3. Einschränkung der grammatischen Regeln auf das Regelmässige und Notwendige (Umarbeitung der Lehrbücher).

4. Umarbeitung der Lesebücher (Realienbücher, Chrestomathien).

5. Eindämmung des schriftlichen und mündlichen Übersetzens aus der Muttersprache, das sich nunmehr mit Diktaten, Umformungen, Nacherzählen, Frage- und Antwortspiel teilen muss.

6. Bessere Auswahl der Schriftstellerlektüre (Kanon).

7. Stärkere Betonung der gesprochenen Sprache. (Sprechübungen, Anschauungsbilder, Chorsprechen, häufiger Gebrauch des Franz. resp. Engl. als Unterrichtssprache.)

Dagegen haben sich mehrere wesentliche Forderungen der Reform für den Massenunterricht in der Schule als unrealisierbar erwiesen:

1. Das (Ideale) Ziel der Sprechfertigkeit.



2. Die vollständige Ausschaltung der Muttersprache, und in Verbindung damit:

3. Ausschluss der Herübersetzung.

4. Ausschluss der Hinübersetzung.

5. Ausschliesslich induktiver Betrieb und Herleitung der grammatischen Regeln aus der Lektüre (Gering-schätzung und Vernachlässigung der Grammatik) . . .”

The weak point of the reform method is revealed by a consideration of the aims of modern language learning:

“Das Ziel der Sprechfertigkeit. Weitaus die Mehrzahl der Äusserungen hierüber stimmen darin überein, dass diese Sprechfertigkeit für die höheren Schulen als Ziel-leistung nicht *möglich* sei, da die Anforderungen die Lehrer und Schüler nicht bloss anstrengen, sondern *aufreiben*; dass ferner dieses Ziel in Wirklichkeit gar nicht *praktisch* sei, da nur ein geringer Bruchteil der Schüler in die Lage komme, die Sprechfertigkeit im Leben zu benützen, und schliesslich dass dieses utilitarische Ziel für unsere höheren Schulen *nimmermehr* als die *Hauptsache* gelten dürfe.

Wenn die Erfolge Walter's an der Musterschule wirklich erstaunlich und grossartig sind, wie aus dem Zeugnis vieler Besucher hervorgeht, so ist das trotzdem kein Beweis für die Allgemeinheit; sie beweisen nur dass Walter selbst ein hervorragender Lehrer ist, wie es deren im Deutschen Reich wohl wenige geben wird, und dass er unter selten günstigen Verhältnissen lehrt!”

A final summing up of the quarrel over methods appears in the final number (1909):

“Die Reform hat ihre Mission erfüllt. Sie hat die Schäden der grammatischen Methode blossgelegt, die das Studium der Grammatik mit überreichlichen Her- und Hinübersetzungen in den Mittelpunkt des Unterrichts stellte. Die Lektüre stand dort zumeist als Dienerin im

Dienste der Grammatik und wurde überdies zu einseitig in historisch-literarischer Weise betrieben, das Sprechen trat zu sehr in den Hintergrund und auf eine korrekte Aussprache wurde zu wenig Gewicht gelegt. Diese alte und veraltete Lehrweise ist durch das kräftige Einsetzen der Reform ein für allemal unmöglich geworden. Aber was die grammatische Methode zu wenig beachtete, die praktische, korrekte Handhabung der Sprache, darin ging die Reform über das Ziel hinaus. Indem sie die Sprechfertigkeit als ihr oberstes und hauptsächlichstes Ziel, als Stern und Kern des Unterrichts hinstellte, verkannte sie einerseits das Wesen und die Aufgabe der höheren Schule, und andererseits ist dieses Ziel unter normalen Verhältnissen im Massenunterricht nur in bescheidenem Masse erreichbar.<sup>1</sup> Der Reformunterricht verlangt nicht nur einen Lehrer, der die Sprache völlig beherrscht, sondern stellt auch an die geistige und physische Kraft desselben derartige Ansprüche, dass ein zu rascher Verbrauch der Arbeitskraft eintreten würde. Aber auch der Durchschnittsschüler, geschweige denn die schwächeren und schwerfälligeren, können den Anforderungen im mündlichen Gebrauch der Sprache keinesfalls gerecht werden, sie werden bald überbürdet und fallen ab. Dieses Zuviel musste der Reform verhängnisvoll werden. Die anfangs in grösseren Scharen herbeigeeilten Anhänger sagten sich allmählich wieder los, als ihnen die rauhe Wirklichkeit gebieterisch den Weg verlegte.

<sup>1</sup>Ganz richtig urteilt J. Resch: "Wenn einzelne Schüler es in den lebenden Sprachen trotzdem zu einer grösseren Fertigkeit bringen, so verdanken sie das gewiss mehr ausserhalb der Schule gelegenen Anlässen und Gewohnheiten als den Veranstaltungen der Schule. Solange das Ausmass der Übung im mündlichen Gebrauch der fremden Sprache für den einzelnen Schüler nicht verzehnfacht werden kann (und wie wäre das möglich?), solange wird auch die durch den klassenmässigen Unterricht erlangte Sprechfertigkeit recht mangelhaft (sagen wir lieber: nur eine Vorstufe, eine Einführung für später) bleiben."

Baumann sagt, dass die absolut direkte Methode für den Schulunterricht ungeeignet ist, besonders aber

1. für den wissenschaftlichen Unterricht,
2. für schwach begabte Schüler,
3. wegen der verschiedenen Befähigung der Lehrenden."

WENDT, O.—*Enzyklopädie des französischen Unterrichts. Methodik und Hilfsmittel* . . . Berlin, Meyer, 1909 (3rd. ed.). xi + 452 pp. \$2.20.

THE most extensive analytical, historical, and bibliographical reference work on the subject.

*Unterricht in der französischen Sprache an höheren Lehranstalten (einschliesslich Selbstunterricht), in Kritischer Jahresbericht über die Fortschritte der Romanischen Philologie.* Leipzig, Rengersche Buchhandlung (subsequent volumes by other publishers), 1896-1913.

This excellent annual survey, which broadened out so as to include all the Romance languages, was continued until the publication of the *Jahresbericht* ceased with volume XII, 1913. Some idea of the scope of the publication can be obtained from titles of sub-sections, chosen at random from different volumes: Die neuen Lehrpläne von 1892 nach Wert und Inhalt; Die Entwicklung des französischen Unterrichts vom Standpunkte der Reform; Lehrweise; Hilfsmittel für den französischen Unterricht (Grammatisches, Lektüre); Der französ. Unterricht in Dänemark, Norwegen und Schweden; Neufranzösische Grammatik; Bibliographie der neusprachlichen Reformliteratur; Unterricht in den romanischen Sprachen, an Universitäten (including historical treatment); Über den auf Abbildungen gegründeten Anschauungsunterricht im Französischen; Über die Bestrebungen das Französische

auf Grund der geistigen Anschauungen zu lehren (Methode Gouin); Unterricht in den romanischen Sprachen an der Technischen Hochschulen des deutschen Reiches, an den deutschen Handelshochschulen.

The *Kritischer Jahresbericht*, also included departments of literature, philology, folklore, phonetics, and French Canadian literature.

JOHNSTON, C. H. (editor)—*High School Education*. New York, Scribner, 1912. xxii + 555 pp. \$1.90.

A CO-OPERATIVE study by subjects of what high school instruction may accomplish. Special attention is called to the following chapters: History of secondary curricula since the renaissance (G. L. Jackson), modern languages (W. H. Carruth), the high school library (T. Koch). There is an extensive bibliography, which for the modern languages contains lists of journals, books on methods, courses, histories of literature, dictionaries, addresses for the purchase of stereopticons, slides, maps, song books, etc.

*Die neuphilologische Lehrerbibliothek*, zusammengestellt von einem bayerischen Neuphilologen. München, Oldenbourg, 1913. 32 pp. 20 cents.

THIS bibliographical guide gives lists of books for French (methods, grammars, phrase-books, style, metrics, lexicography, literary history, culture and civilization, and school editions of French writers, phonetics, pictures, maps, commercial correspondence); with an appendix for Italian books. Prices are quoted.

OLIVER, T. E.—*Suggestions and References for Modern Language Teachers*. University of Illinois, School of Education, Bulletin No. 18, Urbana, 1917 (second edition). viii + 84 pp. 25 cents.



CONTENTS: The training of the teacher (opportunities for travel and study, books of travel, political histories, methods of teaching modern languages, books on phonetics and other aids to correct pronunciation, histories of literature, journals for the teacher, dictionaries, grammar and supplementary grammatical aids, miscellaneous reference books); the teacher in the class-room (newspapers and periodicals for class-room use or for outside reading, illustrative material); the teacher outside the class-room (songs, games, school theatricals, reading outside the class-room, international correspondence between schools, school libraries).

*Bibliography of the Best Books for the Study of German in High Schools and Junior Colleges* (prepared by the Department of German of the University of California). Berkeley, Univ. of California Press, 1917. 20 pp. Free on application to Prof. H. K. Schilling, 401 Wheeler Hall.

An excellent hand-list for selecting books and periodicals for private and school libraries: bibliography, methods, lexicography, grammar, phonology, conversation, history of the language, proverbs and idioms, poetics, history of the literature (general and by periods and types), anthologies, song books, editions, commentaries, history, geography, institutions and manners, mythology and folklore, periodicals, wall-pictures. Prices are given.—A list of books for a library also appears in C. Schlenker's *Bulletin for Teachers of German*, published by the University of Minnesota, 1916.

CERF, B.—*A Four Year Course in French for High Schools*. Madison, University of Wisconsin, 1918. (Bulletin of the Univ. of Wisconsin, No. 947) 27 pp. 10 cents.

A USEFUL brochure, especially for its well-selected reference and reading material for a high school library: dictionaries, grammars, pronunciation, verbs, idioms, vocabulary, history and monuments, literature, French life and ideals, maps, wall-pictures, songs, games, books for travellers, periodicals and newspapers, series of literary texts.

PREVOST, M. L.—*Foreign Countries*, A List of books on Foreign Countries, compiled for the United States Shipping Board, by the Free Public Library of Newark, N. J. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1918. 25 pp.

CONTAINS among other things a list of one hundred of the best books of modern travel.

*List of Books for High School Libraries.* Bulletin No. 10, 1926, of the Department of Education, State House, Boston, Massachusetts. 132 pp. Free on application.

FOR the modern language teacher this manual is useful only for history, folklore, economics, and social studies, as it contains no works in the foreign languages.

CHURCHMAN, P. H.—*The Teacher and his Books*. Mod. Lang. Journal., 1923, pp. 205-220.

SENSE of proportion and intelligent distribution of effort are the basic virtues in the conquest of bookland. Not all books are to be treated alike; some are to be studied, others simply read, still others only consulted, skimmed or merely listed. Three main activities include all of these processes: knowing about books, knowing the books themselves, and consulting books. The author suggests ways of acquiring these activities. The list of reference books is the really basic part of the discussion;

pp. 212-217 list and discuss general reference books; pp. 217-220 deal with Spanish books in particular.

*Index Bibliographicus, Répertoire international des sources de bibliographie courante* (Périodiques et institutions), publié sous la direction de M. Godet. Genève, Société des Nations: Commission de Coopération Intellectuelle, 1925. xvi + 233 pp.

CONTAINS sections on general bibliography, psychology, philology (artificial languages, Romance and Germanic languages), literature, history, geography, an index arranged by countries and a general index.

GREGORY, W. (editor).—*Union List of Serials in Libraries of the United States and Canada*. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1927. 1588 pp. \$75.00.

THE purpose of this list is to locate serial publications for reference use. As it includes 75,000 entries from 225 co-operating libraries it is the most comprehensive and useful source of information for periodicals available. A list of union lists of serials is appended, to which can now be added, *Periodicals in American Libraries for the Study of the Hispanic Languages and Literatures*, compiled by R. H. Keniston; The Hispanic Society of America, New York, 1927.

KÜRZ, Harry.—*Reflections on Method*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1926, pp. 197-208.

THE author makes comments of a general nature on a variety of topics. The article contains a list of books, periodicals, pictures, etc., along with information as to where to obtain them, that will be useful to teachers of French and Spanish.

MÜLLER, E.—*Was soll ich lesen?* Klassen-Privatlektüre und wissenschaftliche Hilfsmittel im Deutschen Unterricht für die drei oberen Klassen der höheren Lehranstalten nach den Forderungen der Richtlinien. Bad Godesberg. Buchhandlung des Evangelischen Pädagogiums, 1927. 32 pp. 25 cents.

A USEFUL reference work for the teacher of German literature. The most important works are marked with an asterisk. For German literature these are: Biese, *Deutsche Literaturgeschichte*; Busse, *Das Drama*; Arnold *Das deutsche Drama*; Weber, *Die epische Dichtung*; Peper, *Die lyrische Dichtung*; Ermantinger, *Die deutsche Lyrik*; Witkop, *Die deutsche Lyrik*; Kummer, *Deutsche Literaturgeschichte des 19 u. 20. Jahrh.*; Naumann. *Die Deutsche Dichtung der Gegenwart*.

*Addenda:* The *Modern Language Journal* publishes an annual survey by Prof. Van Horne. Useful analyses appear in the *Loyola Educational Digest* (3441 North Ashland Ave., Chicago, \$3. per year).

## II. HISTORIES

VIERECK, L.—*Zwei Jahrhunderte Deutschen Unterrichts in den Vereinigten Staaten*. Braunschweig, Vieweg, 1903. xii + 293 pp. \$1.65.

A HISTORY from the beginning of the 18th century, with extensive bibliographical references. The first period (to 1825) includes church schools in Pennsylvania, academies and colleges; the second (1823-1876) the establishment of German in the universities; the third the development, from the founding of Johns Hopkins University, of graduate instruction along German lines.



MATTHIAS, A.—*Geschichte des Deutschen Unterrichts*.  
München, Beck, 1907. viii + 446 pp. \$4.40.

GERMAN schools, in contrast with Latin grammar schools of the middle ages, first appear in the 16th century, and despite prohibitions, German was used more and more in the teaching of Latin in the grammar schools. A significant regulation of 1528 reads: "Es schadet auch nichts, von Zeit zu Zeit die Schüler, wenn sie lateinischen Sentenzen exponieren, zu prüfen, wie sie deutsch sprechen." The daily reading in Protestant schools of Luther's translation of the Bible and the singing of German hymns strengthened the position of the mother tongue in the class-room, as did also the broadening of the curriculum so as to include arithmetic and history. Among scholars Latin was still preferred, and continued to be, for several centuries. In the 17th century a new obstacle to the use of German arose in the preference shown by the nobility for French. At the same time, however, as in other countries (Pléiade, Accademia della Crusca, French Academy, etc.), societies and academies were founded for the express purpose of improving the mother tongue. Comenius (1592-1670), the school reformer, advocated the use of the native language in schools. For educational purposes he maintained that it was the most powerful instrument. By the end of the 17th century German as a medium for instruction had supplanted Latin. The struggle survives, however, in the controversy over the fuller recognition of German in the curriculum of the "Gymnasium". Matthias makes a strong plea for German, and gives useful information for the foreigner on text-books, grammars, and manuals on style.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Another work can be recommended here for advanced teachers of German: S. Engelmann's *Methodik des deutschen Unterrichts*, Leipzig, Quelle & Meyer: 1927 (2nd ed.). 201 pp. \$1.70.

WATSON, F.—*The English Grammar Schools to 1660 their Curriculum and Practice*. Cambridge, University Press, 1908. ix + 548 pp. 6s.

THE subjects taught were religion, Latin and Greek; other subjects like history, ancient and modern, mathematics, modern languages, were used only for illustrative purposes in composition. Differentiation of subjects did not exist till after 1660. Much useful information is given on the grammar war of the renaissance, the development of new classical standards, Latin speaking, the use of colloquies, vocabularies and phrase books, the development of translation as an end in itself. There are extensive bibliographies of text-books used during the period.

CORCORAN, T.—*Studies in the History of Classical Training, Irish and Continental, 1500-1700*. London, Longmans, Green, 1911. xvii + 306 pp. 7s. 6d.

THIS work, although primarily a vindication of William Bathe's *Janua Linguarum* (Salamanca, 1611; frequently reprinted in Spain, England, Germany, Italy, etc.), which preceded the better-known *Janua Linguarum Reserata* of Comenius by twenty years, discusses learnedly renaissance and post-renaissance struggles with the language teaching problem.

HANDSCHIN, C. H.—*The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States*. United States Bureau of Education, 1913, No. 3 (Out of print, and scarce).

CONTAINS a bibliography, chronologically arranged, from 1875 to 1912. It was not until the eighties of the 18th century that any marked interest in the introduction of the modern languages in American colleges became manifest. Harvard made an attempt in 1735 to establish instruction in French, but M. Langloisserie who was

appointed to the post was impeached for disseminating "dangerous ideas" (a belief in the divine inspiration of certain dreams of his), and was dismissed.

The first professorship of modern languages was established by Jefferson at William and Mary College, Virginia, in 1779-80, the incumbent being Charles Bellini; but Amherst was the first college to establish a thorough-going modern language course of instruction in French and German, dating from 1824, and in Spanish from 1827. French was first introduced in a public secondary school at Boston in 1832. The first instruction in the German language was given in the denominational schools of German colonists, the first being founded in Germantown, Pa., in 1702. New England took up the study of German about 1823. At the universities, the first professor of German was W. Creamer, University of Pennsylvania, 1754-1775 (French and German).

CUBBERLEY, E. P.—*The History of Education, Educational Practice and Progress considered as a Phase of the Development and Spread of Western Civilization*. Cambridge, Riverside Press, (1921?). xxiv + 849 pp. \$5.25.

THIS is the most comprehensive work on the subject that has appeared since the publication of Monroe's *Text Book on the History of Education* (1905), and *Cyclopedia of Education* (1911-13). Cubberley's work deals with the ancient, medieval and modern world, and periods of transition, the final chapters discussing new tendencies and expansions, and the future. The work is useful for general tendencies, but does not contain much material bearing specifically on the teaching of languages.

ESCHER, E.—*The "Invention" of the Natural Method of Language Teaching*. *Modern Language Journal*, 1920, pp. 295-301.

G. HENESS, the originator of the natural method in America, in an introduction to his *Leitfaden* stated that he proposed to apply to foreign languages Pestalozzi's procedure in teaching High German to children in South Germany by using object lessons. "Since the beginning of the race, this natural method has been the one employed universally in teaching children their own language from the mother's lips." The consecutive steps are, objects, pictures, questions and answers. "There is no longer any doubt that this method is especially adapted for children. In the natural order, reading and writing come after speaking, grammar and dictionary after reading and writing."

The concluding passages of the introduction to the *Leitfaden* are quite Utopian. The excessive amount of time to be devoted to the study of one foreign language excluded the system from ready application in the public schools.

The natural method was first recommended for French schools by the minister of public instruction, Victor Duruy, in 1863. Certain passages, if compared with Heness', make the latter's statements almost sound like an echo.

LAMBLEY, K.—*The Teaching and Cultivation of the French Language in England during Tudor and Stuart Times, with an Introductory Chapter on the Preceding Period*. Manchester University Press, 1920. xiii + 438 pp. 14s.

CONTINENTAL French triumphed over Anglo-French in the 15th century. The earliest important grammar was



Palsgrave's (1530). French was at first taught to the royal family and the nobility by native tutors, often refugees. The first Englishman to teach the language was John Eliote, author of *Ortho-Epia Gallica* (1593), "which teacheth to speake truly, speedily, volubly the French tongue". At the universities, French and Italian were taught privately. Miss Lambley's work is a mine of information for methods, grammars and text-books, interest in foreign languages, travel on the continent, the study of French among merchants and soldiers, gallo-mania after the Restoration, and bibliographical data. French is the language chiefly discussed, but information is also given about the teaching of German, Italian and Spanish.

KANDEL, I. L.—*The Reform of Secondary Education in France*. New York, Teachers College, 1924. viii + 159 pp. \$1.50.

AN account of the short-lived Bérard Reform (1923-1924) which decreed that in *lycées* and *collèges* the study of the ancient classics was obligatory for all pupils from the 11th to the 14th year. This radical reform was hardly in effect one year when a choice was again allowed between a full classical and Latin-moderns course, thus restoring the Leygues Reform of 1902 (which had moreover enforced the use of the direct method). Kandel's book was in press when the Bérard decree was amended (1924). The reform of 1925 is discussed in *La Revue de l'enseignement des langues vivantes*, Aug., 1925, and in *Die Neueren Sprachen*, 1925, p. 489 ff., with an interesting comparison between the 1902 and 1925 decrees. Kandel discusses briefly the history of the recognition of moderns in the secondary schools of France.

WERNER, O. H.—*The Trend in the Study of Foreign Languages in American High Schools*. Sch. and Soc., 1925, pp. 268-272.

A REVIEW of changes during the preceding thirty years in the study of modern foreign languages in American high schools. The total number of pupils studying foreign languages is increasing, but the percentage of pupils studying foreign languages, when based on total high school enrolment, is decreasing. The percentages of enrolment in Latin, Greek and German have declined greatly during the past decade, while the percentages of enrolment in French and Spanish have increased. The total number of foreign languages studied in American high schools has risen from 4 in 1890 to 16 in 1922. The percentage of pupils studying foreign languages in private high schools is much greater than in public high schools. High schools in large cities are tending to forsake Latin for the more modern foreign languages, French and Spanish, while small high schools in rural and semi-rural districts retain Latin. The number of colleges and universities which make no entrance requirement in foreign languages is increasing rapidly. Approximately two-thirds of all high school pupils who study foreign languages at all pursue such study for one year or less. Comparatively few pupils devote more than two years to the study of foreign languages in American high schools. (See now the volume of statistics published by the Modern Foreign Language Study, 1928.)

FRIEDEN, P.—*Das französische Bildungswesen in Geschichte und Gegenwart*. Paderborn, Schöningh, 1927. 188 pp. \$1.10.

THIS is volume XIV of the excellent series, Handbücherei der Erziehungswissenschaft, and traces briefly

but clearly pedagogic trends through the middle ages, renaissance (Rabelais, Montaigne), the 16th and 17th centuries (Jesuits, Jansenists, La Salle), the 18th century (Fénelon, Rousseau, the Revolution, Napoleon), the 19th and 20th centuries (Jacotot, Comte, Dupanloup), collèges, lycées, the reforms of 1902, 1925, etc., with excellent bibliographies.

ZIEGLER, T.—*Geschichte der Pädagogik, mit besonderer Rücksicht auf das höhere Unterrichtswesen*. München, Beck, 1923. (5th ed. revised by A. Nebe). 445 pp. \$3.05.

FOR the modern language teacher the most interesting part of this work is the impartial discussion of the controversy over the reform method, closing with the following conclusion (p. 411): "Unbestritten bleibt ihnen aber unter allen Umständen das Verdienst, dem grammatischen Überschwang auf unseren höheren Schulen ein energisches Halt zu gerufen und den neusprachlichen Unterricht ganz bedeutend gehoben und belebt zu haben."

*Addenda:* See also under Bibliographies and Aims, especially the works of Wendt, Handschin, and *Modern Studies*. The history of the direct principle in the teaching of modern languages is dealt with extensively by G. Loftfield in the *Scandinavian Scientific Review*, Vol. 3, 1925, pp. 92—187 (Scandinavian Scientific Press, Oslo).

### III AIMS AND METHODS

GOUIN, F.—*The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages, translated from the French by Swan and Betis*. New York, Longmans, Green & Co., 1924 (9th ed.). xxiii + 407 pp. \$2.50.

HIS method (called "natural", also psychological; first published at Paris in 1880; earlier in a private edition printed at Geneva) and his series system are based on a psychological analysis of the processes by which a child learns its native language. The series consists of concentric groups, *viz.*, of those expressions known by a child of seven, ten, sixteen and twenty-one, corresponding to the development of individuality. On the negative side, the method abrogates translation and the study of formal or abstract grammar. As Ollendorff's method centres about the noun, Gouin's does about the verb. The child who first gave Gouin an insight into linguistic and psychological processes expressed its ideas about a mill, naming the activities in series, according to their order in succession of time: first of all he filled his little sacks with grain, then he hoisted them on his shoulder, then he carried them to the mill, etc. This gave Gouin the idea of his series of verbs, grouped under linguistic series, having as their object the facts which present man, quadrupeds, birds, reptiles, insects, plants, the elements. For example: the maid takes hold of the pail by the handle, the maid lifts up the pail, the maid goes across the kitchen, the maid opens the door, the maid comes to the pump, the maid stops at the pump, . . . etc. The tenses are taught by adding yesterday, to-morrow, etc.: yesterday the maid took hold, etc.

The Gouin method was made popular in England about the beginning of the 20th century by Stead of the *Review of Reviews*, and has not been without influence on the direct method, especially as practised in Germany, differing, however, from direct method procedure in excluding objects and pictures.

—As Myers points out in *Sch. and Soc.*, 1921, pp. 57-58, the Gouin method has theoretical advantages: it



deals with the learner's experience; it involves dramatization, making meaning inevitable to the learner; it repeats, offering ample drill. But, after a few lessons it becomes lifeless and motivates to nothing beyond mere verbal activity. It is too suggestive of childhood experience to be used with adults.

COLBECK, C.—*On the Teaching of Modern Languages in Theory and Practice*. Cambridge University Press, 1887. vi + 87 pp. 2s.

AFTER reviewing aims of modern language teaching, asserts the prior significance of ability to read. A child can learn to speak a foreign language as easily late as early. The particular method used is of little significance, but there must be adequate time, at least two hours a day for five days in the week. Much effort has been wasted because of undue stress on irregular forms. Prefers to teach a small amount of philology even to beginners.

WIDGERY, W. H.—*The Teaching of Languages in Schools*. London, David Nutt, 1903. (First ed. 1888.) 1s.

LANGUAGE is a mental science. "The order in which the sounds of speech are produced in the mouth of the child begins with those that require the least physiological effort, and passes gradually to those that require the greatest. A language cannot be taught without phonetics, and we should from the beginning use phonetic transcription. Translation, in early classes at any rate, is unjustifiable. Vocabulary must be memorized. Philology is not a school subject save in English."

MÜNCH, W.—*Didaktik und Methodik des französischen Unterrichts*. München, Beck, 1919 (4th ed. revised by J. Ziehen; first ed. 1895). 200 pp. \$1.65.

THIS has been Germany's most popular manual for the past generation. It deals learnedly and in a practical way with theory and practice as applied to teaching problems, from pronunciation to "Kulturgeschichte und Landeskunde" and "Hilfsmittel für den Unterricht, Fachliteratur". In a chapter contributed by Ziehen, who is responsible for the new edition, and who is himself the author of *Einführung in die Aufgaben und Probleme des französischen Unterrichts*, there is a discussion of the problem, raised in Germany by the war, as to whether there ought to be a restriction in oral work. Ziehen argues that oral work is justified not so much for practical needs as for pedagogic purposes. Some means will have to be provided for training future generations of teachers who are unable to go abroad.

Münch's book is eminently practical as the following remarks show: In pronunciation we can only aim to achieve the attainable, beyond which effort is futile. It is a pedagogic problem. Even the teacher's pronunciation is not perfect, as any honest foreigner will tell him. All that the school can do is to carry the pupil in the right direction. To make speaking the chief objective represents an extreme reaction from the opposite tendency, which neglected oral practice. Oral work may, however, be the best means to an end. To expect pupils to be able to discuss in a foreign tongue ordinary topics as well as literature is to demand of them something they cannot do in their native tongue. We must therefore be moderate in our aims. The one best method for all circumstances cannot be determined.

SWEET, HENRY.—*The Practical Study of Languages*.

London, J. M. Dent & Sons, 1899. xiv + 280 pp. 6s.  
DISCUSSES most of the major problems of modern

language teaching and learning. The teaching of phonetics is impeded by two fallacies: that pronunciation can be learned by imitation, and that minute distinctions of sound can be disregarded. The phonetic spelling should be taught before the alphabetic in order that the strongest associations should be between sounds and ideas. The idea that a phonograph can be used as a substitute for a trained phonetician shows a misconception of the problem of teaching phonetics. All study of language should be based on the spoken language. The advocates of the natural method of learning a foreign language forget that the vernacular is learned under circumstances that cannot be duplicated. It is an unnatural method for an adult and does not allow him to use his adult abilities of analysis and generalization. Gouin is wrong in asserting that language learning by any method is easy. The main foundation of the practical study of language should be connected texts, not isolated sentences, and this study must be accompanied by grammatical analysis. A grammatical rule without an example is of no practical use. Learning a language is forming associations of words and sentences with thoughts, ideas, actions, events. The main principles to be followed in forming such associations are: present the most frequent and necessary elements first, present like and like together, contrast like and unlike until all sense of effort in the transition ceases, let the associations be direct and concrete, avoid conflicting associations. Descriptions should precede dialogues. The language of early texts should be colloquial, not literary, and as free as possible from figures of speech. If two languages are to be learned, make sure that one is well established before a second is commenced. We cannot think in a foreign language until we have a thorough and ready knowledge of it. Translating from the foreign

language is the most obvious way of explaining its meaning. The picture-method is of very limited applicability. Exercise writing usually leads to wrong associations and should be abolished. Recommends French as the first foreign language.—A pioneer work which is still one of the most useful for the language teacher.

*Report of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association of America.* Boston, Heath, 1901 (submitted in 1898). vi + 99 pp. 60 cents.

Practical counsel, "based upon sound reasoning and embodying the best thought and experience of the day"—the American teacher's *vade-mecum* and standard of perfection for the past generation. The committee maintains that the requisite amount of colloquial practice cannot be given in the school course. Conditions in the United States are different from those of European countries by reason of their geographical position. If it were possible to impart a practical command of languages, all but a few of those leaving school with this accomplishment would soon lose it for lack of occasion to use it. A foreign language should be taught for the sake of the general educational value. At the same time, its potential value as a means of intercourse may very properly be kept in view.

Although prepared more than a quarter of a century ago, this report is still valuable for its pronouncements on such perennial problems as the value of modern languages in secondary education, methods of teaching (grammar-translation, natural or conversational, psychological or Gouin, phonetic or reform, and reading), elementary, intermediate and advanced courses (with recommendations as to reading material); but less convincing in its specimen examination papers (translation: *e.g.*, Here is the pen, shall I send it to her? No, do not send it to her;



give it to me; grammar: *e.g.*, Write the forms of the demonstrative pronouns; In what ways may the use of the passive voice be avoided in French? What case is governed by each of the prepositions, *auf, aus, bei*, etc.).

—In Bulletin No. 41 of the United States Bureau of Education (1913), W. B. Snow published a *Statement of Chairman of the Committee on Modern Languages of the National Education Association*. Publication of the final report was interrupted by the war, and may never appear. It was more favorable to the reform method than the report referred to above.

*Methods of Teaching Modern Languages*, by A. M. Elliott, C. Thomas, E. S. Joynes, W. T. Hewett, F. C. de Sumichrast, A. Lodeman, W. B. Snow, W. R. Price, E. H. Babbitt, C. H. Grandgent, H. C. G. von Jagemann, E. Spanhoofd. D. C. Heath and Co., 1893; new edition, 1915. vi + 218 pp. \$1.00.

A collection of essays on various problems of method by writers from a large number of eastern universities and school systems. The essays were written at different dates between 1887 and 1914. In spite of these diversities of source and time some uniformities of opinion appear. No one of the writers believes that any pupil really acquires a control over the oral language through classroom teaching, no matter what method is employed. Most writers insist on the value of grammar and translation. Philology should be reserved for university courses. The primary aim in all foreign language teaching is the development of ability to read the language—reading should be the centre of instruction. Several authors insist that translation be used at first, but gradually disappear, giving place to interpretation. The “natural” method is

criticized on the grounds that its results are superficial, futile for commercial or vocational purpose, barren of cultural value, and above all based on a misconception as to the nature of language. All language, written or oral, is a set of conventional symbols, and written symbols are as direct and natural as vocal symbols.

HOLMES, D. T.—*The Teaching of Modern Languages in Schools and Colleges* (adapted from the French of Professor Horner of Freiburg University). Paisley, Gardner, 1903. 96 pp. 60 cents.

A USEFUL manual for the discussion of such sundry methods as: Lancelot's Mnemonics; Moigno's formulae (to remember that the German word *Sonne* means *soleil*: *sonnez cloches, c'est midi au soleil*); Franke's practical vocabularies with series of exercises; Bréal's phrase-types (adopted more recently by Palmer); Gouin's series; the Marcel method—"direct" reading, in which the word, as in the mother-tongue, instantly recalls the thought, not reading with the help of a translation (nomenclature adopted by Bond); the Toussaint-Langenscheidt method, with pronunciation as a specialty; the intuitive method (*i.e.* *vs.* the grammatical-translation method), as old as Comenius (1592-1674), and as modern as Berlitz.

SIEPMANN, OTTO.—*The New Method of Teaching French and its Application to English Preparatory Schools*. Prep. Sch. Rev., 1904, Vol. 4, pp. 115-121.

As long ago as 1592 there appeared a "new method" of teaching modern languages, professing "to teach in a very short time and in a very easy way how to pronounce French naturally, read it perfectly, write it easily and speak it fluently." Since then many others have come and gone.

No direct method can in fact prevent a child at the beginning of foreign language training from thinking in the original. Fluency in foreign language thinking means at first rapid translation. Later this phase drops out.

The writer would not do away altogether with translation, either into or from the vernacular, and insists on retention of grammar. Would start the course with phonetics, and make reading the centre of modern language instruction. Extensive oral practice is of value in achieving this end.

WALTER, MAX.—*Der Gebrauch der Fremdsprache bei der Lektüre in den Oberklassen*. Marburg, Elwert, 1914 (2nd ed., the first having appeared in 1904-5). 43 pp. 40 cents.

WALTER deals with two problems: how to teach a reading lesson, and how pupils prepare the text at home. Pupils use the French dictionaries of Larive-Fleury or Larousse, marking their unsolved difficulties. These are explained in class by other pupils or by the teacher. German is used rarely and then only to explain a difficulty that cannot be made clear in French. The teacher reads the text aloud (with "Geste und Mimik"), asks questions about the contents and vocabulary, etc., and finally the pupils reproduce the text orally or in writing. Occasionally the best passages are translated as models of perfect German. The author observes that many excellent teachers shrink from using the oral method because they have not had enough practice in speaking the language. He is convinced that reading aloud will develop speaking ability and will also benefit the pupils.

Other works on the reform method by Walter published by Elwert are: *Aneignung u. Verarbeitung des Wortschatzes im neusprachlichen Unterricht: Vortrag, gehalten*

*ten auf dem XII. Allgem. Deutschen Neuphilologentage zu München; Englisch nach dem Frankfurter Reformplan; Der französische Klassenunterricht auf der Unterstufe. Entwurf eines Lehrplans; Die Reform des neu-sprachlichen Unterrichts auf Schule und Universität, mit einem Nachwort von Wilhelm Viëtor; Zur Methodik des neu-sprachlichen Unterrichts.*

BAHLESEN, L.—*The Teaching of Modern Languages*, trans. by M. B. Evans. Boston, Ginn, 1905. 97 pp. 50 cents.

CONTENTS: Methods of language teaching, a historical sketch; the reform of modern language teaching in Germany; pronunciation, phonetics, sound-physiology, phonetic transcription; first instruction in French and German on a phonetic basis; the analytical-inductive method; German grammar as taught by the analytical-inductive method; a reading course in German for secondary schools.

An exposition of the "reform" method adapted to American conditions. The historical account of language methodology is interesting but only a sketch. The author sets forth advantages and disadvantages of the Viëtor reform (with a select bibliography of reform literature), and explains modifications in the method introduced by Walter, Münch and Ulbrich. Rather than begin with formal grammar (declensions and conjugations), he recommends the reading of easy texts from which grammatical rules can be deduced by the analytical-inductive process, limiting attention to what is typical rather than to exceptions, the final aim being an appreciation of the foreign people's spirit.

—Studies on modern language teaching in Germany (now chiefly of historical interest) appear in *Special*



*Reports on Modern Language Teaching*, London, Wyman and Sons, 1899, and by Jas. E. Russell in *German Higher Schools*, New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1899. The article in the former, by Mary Brebner, was subsequently enlarged and brought up to date in what is perhaps the best manual on the subject, *The Method of Teaching Modern Languages in Germany*, Cambridge University Press, 1909. From this work the following notes are taken:

The new method is at once analytical, direct and imitative. Its essential features, not including phonetics, which will be dealt with later, may be summed up as follows: reading forms the centre of instruction; grammar is taught inductively; the foreign language is used as much as possible throughout; there are regular conversation exercises at every lesson; the teaching is connected with the daily life of the pupil; objects and pictures are used in the earlier stages; "realien" are extensively taught; great attention is paid to pronunciation; free composition is largely substituted for translation into the foreign tongue; translation into the mother tongue is reduced to a minimum.

As a rule the number of lessons per week diminishes as the pupils rise in the school, the reason being that it is far more difficult to gain a firm grasp of a language than to keep it up when acquired. Sample lessons in French and English are given. In the lesson in English taught by Max Walter the new words presented were carefully practised and phonetically spelt from Viëtor's *Lauttafel*. When a boy made a mistake in pronunciation neither he nor anyone else was allowed to say what mistake he had made but he had to show on the chart, first the sound he had given, then the sound he ought to have given, at the same time carefully repeating the right sound of the word.

In most schools modern language teaching used to consist mainly of grammar and composition. Grammar meant the committing of elaborate rules, lists, and exceptions to memory, and composition took the form of translating sentences or passages into the foreign language with the help of these rules. Against this method the reformers have been most vehement. Hence arose the delusion that they were wholly averse to grammar teaching. But all along the reformers have looked on grammar as a useful means, only maintaining that it could not be systematically taught till there was a certain amount of language-knowledge to work upon. No separate grammar lessons are now given in the earlier stages. Less grammar is taught, but it is taught inductively, and translation into the foreign tongue is rapidly giving place to free composition which is found to be easier, more interesting and more useful to the pupils.

Phonetic drill is invaluable for giving the pupils a good pronunciation from the start. It is absolutely indispensable that the teacher's own pronunciation should be as perfect as possible. The phonetic method makes great demands on the pupils as well as the teacher. But the results, as shown in the pupils' mastery of difficult unfamiliar sounds seem to justify the increased expenditure of energy.

The word *realien* covers everything that is illustrative of a nation's real thought and life,—its literature, history and geography, institutions, manners and customs. *Realien* do not consist in objects, maps, pictures, etc., but are rather the national facts or "realities" which these illustrate. In the conditions laid down for the choice of school authors and texts in Germany, by far the greatest stress is laid on their usefulness for teaching the *realien*. The pupils' school reading should make them acquainted

not only with the most famous men, but also with the "best and noblest productions of the nation in literature and art, in trade and industry; its most notable achievements in peace and war, in political and social life."

The destructive feature of the Berlitz school is the absolute exclusion of the pupil's mother tongue even from the very beginning. This seems to involve loss of time and a certain amount of unnecessary confusion. Most advocates of the new method insist only on using the pupil's mother tongue as little as possible. The so-called Jena school resembles the Berlitz method.

The more pupils are accustomed from the very beginning to the thought that French and English are to be learned less from book than from the mouth of the teacher, the more quickly will intercourse between teacher and pupils in the foreign language be attainable, and the pupils' shyness of expressing themselves in the foreign tongue disappear.

Most German examinations are oral as well as written. In girls' schools they have been practically abolished. The pupils are moved up, or "remain sitting," according to the decision of the staff. Comparatively few are left behind. As far as modern languages are concerned the fact that there is generally an oral examination as well as a written one has really a beneficial influence on the teaching. The examination is not an aim; it is merely a test and its results are checked by the year's work, which is always taken into account.

When a student has successfully passed his teacher's examination, after four or five years of university training, two or three years more must elapse before he is considered in a position to receive a permanent appointment as a teacher. He must spend two years of his professional

training in a seminar. The number admitted to each one is limited to six.

BREUL, KARL.—*The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages and the Training of Teachers*. Cambridge Univ. Press, 1906, 1913 (4th edit.) \$1.25.

DISCUSSES all the major problems of language teaching: method, aims, pronunciation, spelling, grammar, idioms, vocabulary, conversation, reading, and teacher training. Reading ability is the major immediate aim of modern language teaching, since it is the one useful to all students. Translation from English to the foreign language is a mistake, especially in the early stages of learning. Accurate pronunciation and enunciation can be obtained only by considering the phrase or sentence, rather than the word, as the unit of speech. The author believes that the value of phonetic script in place of letters is still open to discussion. The scientific study of phonetics has no place in the high school, and should be kept for university courses. Most "practical" school grammars contain too much grammar. Only current idioms should be memorized, and then in sentences. Pages 69-83 contain an enumeration and discussion of the chief sounds, and chief grammatical facts of German that offer difficulty to the beginner. (This listing is based on teaching experience, not on frequency-counts as is the more recent practice.) The last section of the book outlines a programme for teacher training courses, and contains suggestions for a reference library for a school teacher of German.

RIPPMANN, W.—(a) *Hints on Teaching German*, with a running commentary to *Dent's New First German Book* and to *Dent's German Reader*. London, Dent, 1906, vi + 95 pp. 75 cents.



(b) *Hints on Teaching French*, by the same author and publisher, 1907. 2s. 6d.

DIRECT method guides to the application of the new principles: pronunciation (phonetic symbols), vocabulary (selected, and systematically taught, especially by the use of pictures), grammar (not an end in itself; grammar to be abstracted from examples and practised by application in suitable exercises), free composition instead of translation. The reform method requires effort in obtaining the meaning of new words, in discovering new grammatical features and in applying them. The books deal only with the elementary stage.

In more advanced work stress is to be laid on the teaching of literature and on imparting a knowledge of the life and thought of the foreign nation.—Attention may be called to Dent's series of direct method books for the study of French, German, Italian, Spanish and Latin, as announced in their catalogues and advertisements.

SIGWALT, CH.—*De l'Enseignement des langues vivantes*. Paris, Hachette, 1906, 1913 (2nd ed.). xvi + 300 pp. 50 cents.

THE author exposes some direct method fallacies and makes an impassioned plea for an eclectic method in preference to one imposed on all teachers by ministerial decree. The advantages of the direct method should first be proved by experiment. Because the mother tongue is excluded from the class-room, the intellectual level of the pupil is lowered. In his use of the method, Sigwalt has observed that his pupils repeat parrot fashion and cease to think for themselves.

In life one learns languages by necessity; in school this all-powerful factor is lacking and is supplanted by the will.

Everyone has a thousand occasions to read, a hundred occasions to write, and one occasion to speak a foreign language. We only speak German when we go to Germany, French when we go to France, and we never go.

It is much more useful to know how to read foreign languages than to speak them. For people engaged in commerce, for men of science or letters, for all those who do not travel, it is of more frequent and more urgent usefulness to be able to write to a Frenchman or a German than to be able to converse with him. When one can read and write a language one is very near knowing how to speak it. The aim then that should be assigned to our teaching of living languages is to teach the students (1) to read fluently from an open book a fairly difficult page, (2) to write a page fairly correctly, (3) to improvise some simple sentences on a subject relating to daily life.

Our teaching should be as practical as possible while remaining literary, and as literary as possible while remaining practical.

BAGSTER-COLLINS, E. W.—*The Teaching of German in Secondary Schools*. New York, Columbia University Press, 1907. viii + 232 pp. \$1.50.

THE values of German as a school subject are three in number: its practical value in commerce and travel; its cultural value; and its formal or disciplinary value.

The highest ideal knowledge of a foreign language would mean that one could use it as a second mother tongue, but reading should be the chief aim of our teaching, for the most that we expect of a man of culture is that he shall be able to read these languages and have some knowledge of their literatures and the place of the nations in modern civilization.

Whether we make a speaking knowledge of paramount

importance or a reading knowledge, it is necessary that the pupils should learn to pronounce, and later to read accurately and fluently.

Any extended use of phonetic texts in elementary work in the study of German in America is uncalled for. Intonation must be learned by mimicry. If the teacher thinks it important enough for his pupils to learn the script, he must for the time being become writing master, and the pupil must take a course in handwriting.

The chief reason for conversation being taught in school is to give pupils a better grasp and insight into the common idioms and vocabulary.

The average teacher does far too much of the talking. He forgets that no one can learn a language by merely listening, and consequently wastes much valuable time in which the pupil might be speaking. Questions and answers prepared by the authors of a text-book may be a boon to the lazy or overworked teacher, but the alert teacher ought to know far better than the author just what the class needs.

The pupil acquires two kinds of vocabulary: a comparatively small group of words that can be used accurately and fluently in speaking, and a much larger group which belong to the reading vocabulary of the pupil, but which are not well enough known to use in conversation.

It would be wise to use two kinds of texts, one for reading alone, and the other suitable for its adaptability for practice in speaking.

The value we attach to speaking is not great enough to warrant us spending the time on teaching grammar in any other language but the mother tongue.

The natural method has much to answer for as regards the flippant way the pupil is taught grammar, or rather

not taught grammar. Of several possible ways of teaching grammar, the author prefers the inductive, but he recognizes that no method of grammar study is so dependent on the teacher for its success or failure as the inductive.

Written work falls naturally under two heads: written exercises of imitative character in which the mother tongue is avoided, and composition as usually understood, *i.e.*, translation from English into German. The highest type of school composition is the essay or letter, to which all the various kinds of oral and written exercises of imitative character lead step by step.

Translation into the foreign language presupposes a thorough knowledge of that language; the pupils should be so familiar with the vocabulary, the idiomatic expressions and the grammatical principles involved, that the sentences can be done quickly and accurately at sight.

The beginner in reading ought not to be disheartened by being started on a book only complete in thirty or forty pages. For him some selection, complete in itself, from one to two pages in length, is the right measure. Even in later stages of the course it is preferable to keep the stories under 100 pages in length. The anecdote, short play, poetry, history, are all commendable. Any definite study of poetry should be put off until the third year of a four-year course.

The values of translation are: it is the most obvious and convenient way of explaining the meaning of a text; it is the most efficient test of a pupil's grasp of the lesson; it is an excellent discipline in clear thinking; it is always strongly represented on examinations. Its disadvantages are: it places the emphasis on English, not on the foreign language; the foreign text remains hazy and obscure until translated into other symbols; it is difficult and



takes a great deal of time to acquire the habit of translating well. Neither extreme is the right method to use. Translation can be abolished as a regular exercise sooner or later from the course,—but how soon is the problem.

The old way of requiring pupils to learn a definite number of words daily should be discarded and new words should be presented in the reading text.

PINLOCHE, A.—*Des Limites de la Méthode Directe*.

Paris, Belin Frères, 1909. 16 pp. 15 cents.

THE direct method has resulted in a lack of precision of vocabulary and a general ignorance of grammatical and syntactical forms. While not prepared to condemn or justify any one method to the exclusion of all others, the author maintains that translation and retranslation alone secure a knowledge of syntax and idioms of the new language, which leads one to form abstract concepts in the foreign tongue, and by which the teacher can discover the exactness of the language-usage of the pupil.

FARRINGTON, F. E.—*French Secondary Schools*. London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1910. 2nd ed. xii + 454 pp. 7s. 6d.

WITHIN the purview of the French public school system the expression “modern languages” means English, German, Italian, Spanish, Arabic, and Russian.

The languages are taught for three years preceding the 6th form, but only two hours per week, and a relatively small number of boys enter the 6th form direct from the lower primary schools. The result of putting these latter into the class with boys who have been studying a language for three years can readily be imagined. The unsatisfactory condition of modern language instruction in the lower classes is thus not entirely the fault of the

teachers, although it must be admitted that here are found the most poorly equipped teachers. To make matters worse, the official regulations contain no specific instructions as to the modern language programme in these grades, merely disposing of it with "two hours per week". In the upper forms the instruction is most specific. Since the reform of 1901, modern language instruction has been vitalized by the application of a new method that does not confound the teaching of a language, whose chief benefit is attributed to the mental drill involved in its acquisition, with that wherein the value consists primarily in the ultimate ability to handle the language practically. The old instruction was certainly too grammatical, literary, and formal. Is not the new too crassly utilitarian? The necessary reduction of reading matter to this minimum naturally forces one to characterize the direct method, as it is ordinarily worked out in the secondary schools to-day, as manifestly superficial. It is not always easy to use a foreign language to summarize, or to give an abstract of what one has just read in that language, but when one is required to paraphrase or to give a word-for-word explanation without recourse to the vernacular, the difficulty is considerably enhanced. Yet the latter is done from the very first.

In order to still further carry out this illusion, many modern language teachers have made use of *realia* of all kinds,—pictures, maps, posters, advertisements,—all in the foreign language. Zest is also added by foreign correspondence, modern language clubs, etc.

One is compelled to admit that the direct method does enable the pupils to understand the spoken foreign language, and does give a certain facility in its use. From first to last the stress is emphatically on the oral expression. The question immediately arises: "Do the perman-

ent results attained justify the distribution of emphasis between conversation and reading?"

One of the general inspectors assembles the criticisms of the direct method under three heads: (1) the lack of homogeneity in the classes, (2) the increased strain upon the teacher, and (3) the shortcomings due to a misapprehension of the programmes and the official directions, in the lack of emphasis on the grammatical instruction, as well as a neglect of the culture aspect in the higher classes. The first of these, being due fundamentally to a failure to treat modern language instruction as seriously as that in most of the other subjects of the curriculum, is quite apart from the method itself. The other two are intimately associated with method. Teachers who apply the direct method are the most exhausted at the end of the hour. The weakness upon the grammatical side is undoubtedly due to the misunderstanding of directions. The lack of literary culture in the higher classes is a well founded and serious objection, at least as the method is applied at present, and one that cannot be entirely or even in large measure attributed to misunderstanding on the part of the teachers.

DELAVANNE, J., und HAUSKNECHT, E.—*Parlons et Composons. Sprech-und Aufsatzschule, Sprechübungen und Musterstücke*. Heidelberg, Winter, 1912. 7 booklets. \$3.45.

AFTER a full discussion in French of paintings, poems and prose passages, there are set themes for composition, with models. The passages or selections on which the material is based are given in only a few instances, references being made to anthologies printed in Germany. This is one of the best attempts yet made to provide material for carrying the direct method beyond the use of "*Realien*".

JOHNSTON, CHAS. H. and others.—*High School Education*.

New York, Scribners, 1912. xxii + 555 pp. \$1.90.

(Chap. XIV, *Modern Languages*, by W. H. Carruth).

REVIEWS historically the development of methods of language teaching: the *deductive*, with its emphasis on grammar and memorization that persisted until the second decade of the 19th century; the *inductive* which appeared at this time, with emphasis on reading and inductive grammar; the *natural* method proposed by Heness in 1871, in which emphasis was placed on the use of the foreign tongue as the medium of instruction; and the *phonetic* method proposed by Viëtor in 1882, which insisted on a study of the physiology of pronunciation and the use of phonetics. In the remaining pages of the chapter the author discusses the training of teachers, and the age of beginning various foreign languages, suggesting that 10 be the age for the first, and that two languages should not be begun in the same year.

THIERGEN, O.—*Methodik des neuphilologischen Unterrichts*. Leipzig, Teubner, 1912 (2te Auflage). vii + 159 pp. \$3.25.

THERE is much practical advice in this treatise on the application of the reform method (as practised by Münch).

VIANEY, J.—*L'Explication française, au baccalauréat et à la licence ès lettres*. Paris, Hatier, 1912, 1925 (4th ed.). viii + 288 pp. \$1.10.

THIS work provides students preparing for examinations with methods and general principles applied to numerous selections (classified, for example, in the case of the drama, as narratives, portraits, descriptions, speeches, dialogues, monologues) taken from the literature of the last three centuries, but especially from the classical



period. One whole part is devoted to La Fontaine's *Fables*, favourite material for examinations, "et qui resteront toujours en France le premier des livres classiques." Fables are studied under five headings: les caractères et l'action, les fables romanesques, l'art de conter et l'art de peindre, la brièveté unie à l'abondance, la morale. The purpose of the *explication* is to analyse the literary, psychological and moral value of a text.

—A considerable body of literature on the *explication de textes* now exists. The method is used in the French universities of Quebec; interesting examples occur in *L'enseignement secondaire au Canada*, as for instance on Crémaizie's, *Chant du vieux soldat*, 1916, pp. 53-62, by Camille Roy.

WALTER, MAX.—*Beobachtungen über Unterricht und Erziehung in den Vereinigten Staaten von Nordamerika*. Marburg, Elwert, 1912. 39 pp. 30 cents.

ORAL work in secondary schools is neglected because of excessive reading requirements for college entrance (2000-2400 pages of German). Hence translation and grammar become the poles about which language instruction revolves. There is no time for reading aloud, or for hearing the spoken language, and an opportunity is lost of providing practice in derivation, synonym study, and the grouping of words according to their form and meaning. Students begin language work at about 14 years of age, and read literature in the foreign tongue before they have a grasp of the language. Walter would use the excellent equipment of American schools in blackboards for written work in: Inhaltsangabe; Fragenstellen über das Stück; Antworten auf Fragen; Feststellen der Synonyma; Etymologische Beziehungen; Wortgruppen nach Form und Inhalt; Ersatz der Ausdrücke; Wortschatz-

übungen; Heraussuchen des Gegenteils von Wörtern, u.a.m.

BAGSTER-COLLINS, E. W.—*Modern Languages and Literature. Cyclopaedia of Education*, ed. Monroe, Vol. IV, pp. 279-292. New York, Macmillan, 1913.

IN France there is great similarity in the offerings of all the universities, in marked contrast to the lack of uniformity of courses given in German universities. Stress is laid upon the candidate's ability to speak and write the foreign language, and it is usual to spend a year abroad before attending the regular university courses. The different diplomas and degrees to be obtained are discussed here, along with courses in English and German offered in 1911-1912.

Work in modern languages in the older universities of Oxford and Cambridge is on the whole but a generation old. A description of the status of modern languages at Cambridge is presented.

Until the Revolutionary war, American colleges as a rule followed about the same course of study as was found in the universities of the mother country. Very little progress was made for over a generation in modern language studies until elective studies were established under the presidency of Eliot at Harvard. At present the modern languages are among the largest departments in the colleges of arts.

The method of modern language instruction in German secondary schools has from early times swung between two poles, the synthetic and the analytic. Both types of instruction have existed at all times side by side, although during the first half of the 19th century the method employed in the schools was on the whole synthetic and a close imitation of the severely grammatical

procedure employed in the teaching of Latin and Greek. Particularly during the past generation rapid progress has been made toward better ways and means of teaching the subject, so that at the present time no country equals Germany in the excellence of its modern language instruction. Method has never been so efficiently and rationally organized with the idea of giving power to the pupil to use the foreign language in reading, writing, or speaking.

In 1901 the whole subject of modern language instruction in French secondary schools was radically changed. The aims and practices of the advanced German reformers were taken over, stock and barrel, and formulated in the instructions of 1901. France leads the world, officially, in the advocacy of the radical direct method of modern language teaching.

The modern languages were late in getting a foothold in the program of studies of secondary schools in the United States. On the whole, they were, and are still, taught to far too great an extent in much the same spirit and manner as Latin. The *Report of the Committee of Twelve* has been of great assistance in fixing standards of modern language instruction in schools. Within the past few years, the more progressive teachers, stimulated by the results obtained by the reformers in Germany, have been trying to adapt to local conditions some of the aims and methods employed abroad. More attention has been given to oral work and to teaching pupils free and better control of the language in general.

Modern languages are studied in the secondary schools primarily for their practical value. Through the choice and study of material a cultural value is added. We may stress the utilitarian side, the practical oral control of the language, allowing the reading of books to appear as a natural outgrowth, or we may make reading the chief

aim. The ability to read a language is more likely to be of permanent practical value than any conversational knowledge that might conceivably be gained in school classes.

It is fundamental that there should be abundant practice in hearing and uttering the sounds of the new language. Although intelligent reading is the chief end sought, a great deal of attention ought to be given to work in hearing and speaking, because of their very positive value in class-room procedure. The constant use of the foreign language in the class-room in the form of commands and well-directed questions and answers, assists the formation of a *Sprachgefühl*, or language sense,—an indefinable, though undoubtedly a potent factor in the acquisition of a foreign language. The bulk of material for the secondary school should be chosen from connected reading texts. In the elementary stages these will consist of simply constructed texts, or texts that are rich in certain grammatical forms or vocabulary. Later the regular annotated stories, etc., may be made the basis for conversational practice.

The immediate value of grammar study is to enable the pupil to acquire the foreign language on the formal side systematically and intelligently. Only essential forms and usages should be selected, and these should be taught by constant practice rather than by drill upon rules. Correct habits of use should be regarded as of more importance than the mere learning of paradigms.

Work in writing may be of two kinds: (1) exercises largely imitative in character; (2) exercises in translation, involving comparison between the mother and the foreign tongue. Teachers have found that written exercises, similar to, and in fact growing out of the conversational practice, are productive of better results. Written work



of all kinds ought to consist largely of material that the pupil can readily do at sight.

The traditional treatment of reading is that of translation into the mother tongue. More recently, systematic attempts have been made to reduce the amount of time spent upon this exercise, and to increase the ability of the class to understand the foreign text without the aid of habitual translation. It is obvious that translation is the quickest apparent test of the pupil's understanding of a passage. Some of its weaknesses may be summed up as follows: (1) It is wasteful of time as a vocabulary builder; (2) it lays but little stress on the thought of what is read; (3) it has little or no influence upon the growth of language-sense (*Sprachgefühl*); (4) the foreign language is kept in the background and used merely as a vehicle for exercising the mother tongue.

BRERETON, C.—*Studies in Foreign Education*. London, Harrap, 1913. 302 pp. 5s.

THE great difference between the study of classics in an English and a French school is that the English boy mainly studies the classics for their own sakes, the French boy for the assistance they give to more complete expression and understanding of his native language. The mother tongue is often sacrificed to classics in England; in France classics no doubt are sometimes sacrificed to the mother tongue; but the converse is never true. Possibly under the old system which preceded the present reform, the study of formal grammar was overdone. To-day the use of short grammars both in French and other languages, from which the exceptions are largely excluded, is "de rigueur" in all state schools.

In England the direct method of teaching modern languages is making great headway but in many schools

the whole teaching needs reorganizing. In modern languages unity of method is needed, at least in the earlier stages, and close co-ordination between the work of the different classes is absolutely essential to successful teaching.

The splendid discipline which translation provides, in teaching us to watch nuances of thought in two different media, does not seem to be provided by any other school exercise.

In modern languages in Germany there appear to be three main streams: many hold fast to the ancient Ploetz; others go in for more modern teaching; and lastly there are the direct methodists of the extreme type who are by no means so numerous as one would imagine. Much attention is paid to pronunciation even in the classical schools. A reader is used right from the beginning. Grammar is not neglected.

Nothing gives a clearer notion of the French aim in education than their conception of examinations. Our literary examinations are an audit of knowledge. The whole competition is a match against time: the pupil who can disgorge the greatest amount of knowledge in a given time comes out on top. The entire examination is very largely a matter of memory. The Frenchman rarely has more than two questions to answer on his examination paper and can state his case with the utmost care.

BLOOMFIELD, LEONARD.—*An Introduction to the Study of Language*. New York, Henry Holt & Co., 1914.  
x + 335 pp. \$1.75.

THIS book contains such chapters as the nature and origin of language, the physical basis of language, morphology, syntax, etc.; pp. 292-305 deal with the teaching of languages.

Language is not a process of reference to a conscious set of rules; the process of understanding, speaking, and writing is everywhere an associative one. Real language teaching consists therefore of building up in the pupil those associative habits which constitute the language to be learned. Instead of this we try to expound to students the structure and vocabulary of the foreign language, and on the basis of this let them translate foreign texts into English. Such translation is a performance of which only people equipped with a complete knowledge of both languages and with considerable literary ability are ever capable.

The best age at which to begin a foreign language is between the 10th and 12th years. If the study is begun earlier the progress is generally so slow that nothing is gained. Older students who have never before studied a language are too exclusively practised in conscious logical groupings of facts to accept the repetition of what is already understood but not yet assimilated. At the age of 10 or 12, on the other hand, the pupil is attracted by the novelty of what he learns, and is not intellectually too superior to the simple content of the earlier lessons.

Instruction in a foreign language must begin by training the pupil to articulate and to repeat frequently the foreign sounds without difficulty or hesitation. The instruction must begin with the elements of phonetics as applied to the pupil's native language, and by contrast to the foreign one.

The foreign utterance must from the first be associated with actual content and not with another vernacular word.

HALL, G.—*Some Psychological Aspects of Teaching Modern Languages*. Ped. Sem., 1914, pp. 256-263.

STATES a few general principles which the writer believes valid. No experimental data are presented in support. Age of 10 is best time to begin. Before this age the child has not developed sufficient "Sprachgefühl" for his own language. Later, learning is complicated by voice mutation and loss of plasticity for new ear discriminations. Study of a "living" language should precede that of a "dead" one. Only one alien language should be taught at a time. Preferably a two or three year period should intervene. To speak and to understand speech are the primary aims. The direct method probably errs in ignoring the contributions of knowledge of the vernacular. "Lean heavily upon vernacular". "Sprachgefühl" is a growth, and it is of no use to isolate the language being learned. It is psychologically impossible to keep the two languages entirely apart. The author does not believe that there is any one method that can be most advantageously used for all pupils or by all teachers.

GLEHN, CHOUVILLE, OSBORNE.—*Cours français du lycée Perse; Première partie, série d'actions, récitations et chansons, en transcription phonétique et orthographe usuelle.* Cambridge, Heffer, 1922, (1st ed. 1914). Pt. 1, 95 cents; Pt. 2, 70 cents.

THE "deuxième partie" provides "conjugaison des verbes avec quelques notions de syntaxe".

Minimum of examples illustrating facts of grammar to accompany reading material, which by the inductive method provides a basis for a fuller study of grammar. This is a direct method book born of the English teacher's sensitive conscience about a thorough grounding in grammar, a difficult matter to reconcile with the direct method, but highly necessary for examination purposes.



KRAUSE, C. A.—*Ueber die Reformmethode in Amerika.*

Marburg, Elwert, 1914. 67 pp. 30 cents.

MUCH old straw is threshed in this pamphlet which deals with phonetics, grammar, programmes of study, examinations, and America's contribution to the direct method, the last chapter being based largely on Handschin's *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States*, 1913. The author, who had experience as a teacher in American schools, is aware of special problems arising out of large classes, and the changing of teachers every semester, and accepts as objectives the recommendations of the "Statement of the Chairman of the Committee on Modern Languages of the National Education Association", a preliminary report made by W. B. SNOW (1913). The final report, (see page 97), has not yet appeared, but as Krause observes the conclusions are more favourable to the direct method than the *Report of the Committee of Twelve* (1898).

ROWE, STUART H.—*Habit Formation and Foreign Language Teaching.* Amer. Psych. Assoc., Dec., 1914.

THE problem in foreign language learning is one of acquisition of groups of habits. The direct method is preferred because it involves development of habits of vocal speech directly, rather than indirectly. Translation involves a radically different set of habits and a transfer from one atmosphere to another. The psychological factors underlying language learning are the instincts of imitation, play, competition and dramatization. The value of the phonograph lies in its appeal to the imitative instinct.

SCHLUETER, LUISE.—*Experimentelle Beiträge zur Prüfung der Anschauungs und der Uebersetzungs Methode bei*

*der Einführung in einem fremdsprachlichen Wortschatz.* Ztsch. f. Psych., 1914, pp. 1-114.

THE numerous "methods" of modern language teaching may be reduced to four types: the old grammar-translation method in which grammatical topics and illustrative isolated sentences constitute the main body of the course; the new translation method where reading of current matter forms the essence of the course, grammar being adjusted to suit the demands of the reading; the direct method; and a combined method in which conversation and translation of text both appear. The author reports here the acquisition of a vocabulary by the translation method (virtually the new-translation method), and by the "demonstration" method (essentially the direct method). The investigation may be defined as a study of the relative merits, in vocabulary learning, of associating word and word in contrast with associating word and object. In one case words of an artificial language were presented with their equivalents in the mother tongue; in the other case the foreign words were presented in association with the objects they designate. The methods were evaluated for three major situations: learning to give vernacular equivalents when foreign words were presented, learning to give the foreign word when objects were presented, and learning to give the foreign words when vernacular words were presented. Numerous details were investigated at the same time, e.g. the tendency of vernacular words to come to consciousness as designates for objects before foreign words were given; auxiliary devices used by subjects to facilitate learning; the influence of position in a series on recall; errors due to similarity of objects presented in the demonstration method; the influence of visual and auditory presentation, and the effect of placing foreign language words to the

right or left of vernacular words, or before and after the object designated. All the words used in the study were nouns. The subjects were all adults, and were few in number. An intermission of five seconds was allowed between each successive presentation, during which time the subject might repeat the words or do whatever he wished. At each lesson eight pairs of words, or word-objects, were presented and learning continued until not more than one error was made by the subject. Retention was tested after 24 hours,—the reaction times of responses, the number of presentations required for learning, and the retention after 24 hours, are the bases on which conclusions are made. Some subjects (apparently only two) were re-tested after twenty to twenty-five days. The major conclusions reached by the author are: (1) neither method is “pure”,—when an object is presented the subject tends to think of the vernacular word, perhaps even to pronounce it before the foreign word is recalled, and when a vernacular word is presented the learner tends to think of the object designated as well as the foreign word. In approximately 70% of the cases the vernacular word appeared with the demonstration method. (2) Perhaps because of (1), no one method was clearly superior. For translation into the vernacular, the translation method gave the best results as judged by three criteria. For translation into the foreign language from the vernacular neither method was consistently superior,—the object method required more presentations, but gave slightly better results after 24 hours. The differences are not large but favour the object-method when the task is learning to find a foreign word for a seen object. The “best” method depends on the purpose in mind. The individual who wants to learn to read should be taught by other methods than are used by one who wants to learn to

speak. Position in a series has some significance, but the lists are too short to allow a thorough investigation of this point. The author points out that her conclusions agree with those of Braunshausen, *Les Méthodes d'enseignement des langues étrangères*, Rev. Psych., 1910, Vol. 3.

WÄHMER, RICHARD.—*Spracherlernung und Sprachwissenschaft. Die Eingliederung des Sprachunterrichts in den wissenschaftlichen Bildungsplan der höheren Schulen, dargelegt am Französischen*. Leipzig, Teubner, 1914. iv + 98 pp. 55 cents.

CAN language be considered a science? Is there a scientific method in language teaching? Can language be so taught that it will have values for students similar to those obtained from the study of science? These questions the author answers in the affirmative. Philology is a scientific study of the structure of language.

BONNARD, G.—*An Elementary Grammar of Colloquial French, on Phonetic Basis*. Cambridge, Heffer, 1915. xii + 180 pp. \$1.15.

PHONETIC transcription is used exclusively, a method that has the approval of the Board of Education and is used in many of the best English schools. The author acknowledges indebtedness to the works of Brunot, West, and Jones. There are no exercises.

PROKOSCH, E.—*The Teaching of German in Secondary Schools*. Bulletin of the University of Texas (Austin), 1915, No. 41. 55 pp. 25 cents.

THE direct method explained and applied by an experienced teacher. There are model lessons on grammar in German.

A similar bulletin was published the same year by



the same university for: "French and Spanish in the High School".

KAPPERT, HERMANN. — *Psychologische Grundlagen des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts*. Paed. Monog., 1915, Vol. xv, 112 pp.

THIS important monograph is divided into two parts: I. Historical Investigation, II. Psychogenetic Investigation. The first section represents a critical examination of almost all the German literature on the problem from 1882 (the date of publication of Viëtor's *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren*) to the time of the publication of this monograph. The foreign language controversy is only a part of the reaction against "formal" education. This theory of education was based on a faulty psychology, and its exponents frankly disavowed any purpose in teaching a subject matter other than to train the faculties. This resulted in emphasis on grammar and the neglect of pronunciation. Herbart's attacks on the "faculty" theory, and the growing opinion that a language had other values than "formal" ones, found expression in the writings of Humboldt and Viëtor. The controversy started by Viëtor gave an immense urge to literature on new methods of teaching, but even at this date Kappert finds no mutual agreement being reached. In part this is due to the fact that the psychological premises are not sufficiently clarified, which in turn is due to the lack of interest shown by psychologists, and the suspicion that psychology has no suggestions for didactics. Kappert agrees that the position represented in psychology by Wundt and Ziehen has little value for language teachers. A psychology that functions in the class-room must deal with complex processes such as memory and thinking and not with sensory elements. It must also contain facts

drawn from genetic and social psychology,—a position indicated by Krueger (*Beiträge zur Entwicklungspsychologie*, 1914).

Turning to psychological analysis directly, Kappert points out that Viëtor's principles are based directly on the writings of Herbart and his followers. Thus Viëtor's insistence on the sentence-unit in language seems to have been suggested by Günther's criticism of the learning of isolated words. Günther condemned this method on three counts—it fails to arouse interest, the words are not readily assimilated, and their reproduction is difficult because there are no proper auxiliary presentations. The same may be said about the learning of isolated sentences. Deductive grammar leads to verbalism, and to nothing more. Viëtor's attack on formal grammar was based on Herbartian psychology.<sup>1</sup> Thus he quotes H. Paul (*Prinzipien der Sprachgeschichte*, 1880) as saying that grammar and logic do not coincide because the development of language, both individually and racially, comes about, not through logical thought, but “natural untrained motion and presentation”. Kappert criticises Viëtor for allowing Herbartian psychology to lead him to consider language-learning as a purely intellectualistic phenomenon and to ignore the role of feeling and emotion.

The “natural” method proposed by Franke in 1884 (*Die Praktische Spracherlernung auf Grund. der Psychologie u. der Physiologie der Sprache dargestellt*) was one of the earliest statements of the so-called direct method. Learning should begin with sounds, but auditory experience must soon be supplemented by phonetic symbols, and by practice in pronunciation of the sounds of the foreign language. Only when this has become efficient

<sup>1</sup>As has been observed before (p. 17), Viëtor's immediate inspiration came from Sayce and Sweet, although he was indebted to Günther as well.

should the student learn to write in proper orthography and to read literature in the foreign language. Grammar should be inductive, the rules being formulated by the student when he has observed similarities and analogies. Translation should be avoided. The aim in teaching must be to establish a direct connection between the idea, *e.g.* of a tower and the foreign word. His reasons for this are not the commonly cited ones of retardation of thought, nor yet of clumsiness, but that if the foreign word and vernacular word only are associated, the word may appear without its meaning, and secondly that only the object-foreign-word connection can become reversible. Kappert points out that it is very naïve to assume that you can prevent the appearance of the vernacular word. Sallwuerk had already indicated this,—the vernacular word is so closely connected with the object that it appears first whether the student pronounces it or not. The chief criticism of Franke's method is that it also leaves the pupil too largely receptive or inactive. The "demonstration" method went some distance in overcoming this defect, but Gouin was the first to provide adequately for activity and creativeness. Kappert recognizes the advantages of Gouin's series but points out that they are long, monotonous and uninteresting for adults, and that in the class-room they become, of necessity, largely imaginal rather than concrete, the dissection of situations being exaggerated. Consequently Gouin's method has been adopted chiefly for children, and probably does not admit of extension to the upper grades.

Sallwuerk objects to the learning of isolated words and sentences, and to the "demonstration" method on the ground that it retards the development of abstract thought (*cf.* Judd). A word has no constant meaning; this is subjectively modified by the listener and the

speaker. Differences of nature and of culture determine the limits of meaning, to different peoples, of word forms as well as the forms of sentence construction. But vocabularies differ not only in their overt speech forms but also in their "inner speech" forms. It is this inner speech that accompanies thinking. This promising theory was not worked out fully by Sallwuerk; his chief contribution lies in his insistence on the indefiniteness of the meaning of isolated words: "Phonetics cannot be taught by isolated sounds nor can a language by isolated words".

The second part of Kappert's treatise states the psychological bases of language learning. In it he defines the nature of the mental development of the child and indicates the adjustments in method that these stages make necessary. The chief points in genetic psychology he enumerates as follows: (1) The mind of the child is qualitatively and not merely quantitatively different from that of the adult; (2) Different mental functions develop at different rates,—the total development is not regular. Following Meumann he notes three general stages in the life of the school child: 8-13, the age of analysis, 13-16, the age of causal thinking, 16 and above, the age of objective thinking; (3) The beginning of mental development is explicitly emotional; feelings, not intellectual processes, are the basis from which mental life develops; (4) Emotions and voluntary activity are inseparably connected. Vocabulary and fluent reading are most easily acquired in the first stage; grammar should be deferred to the second, and translation to the third. Phonetics should be learned at first by imitation, through meaningful sentences, rhymes, and proverbs; later technical training on pronunciation, including physiological analysis, should be substituted. If reading is begun after some vocabulary has been acquired the methods used in the vernacular



should be followed; if it is started at the beginning of the training more attention must be given to word and letter recognition. There is little transfer, and there may be interference in learning to recognize words by their sounds after a long period of reading, where the word is recalled as a visual image. Speaking in the foreign language is of value not merely because it allows for expression, but because it is interesting and emotionally satisfying. Some pupils do better with the translation method than the direct; for others (the more active and impulsive) the contrary is true. It is of little value to acquire a vocabulary by learning word-pairs. Meaningful speech and reading must be the principal sources of vocabulary. In general, Kappert would agree with Judd—"there is no single best method". He recommends, on the basis of genetic psychology a dominantly direct method for young children, a grammatical method for young adolescents, and a translation method for adults. The direct method allows larger possibilities for action and for free expression. The method to be adopted must always be determined by the stage of mental development of the student. On certain psychological problems we have no adequate information: the interaction of reading, hearing, speaking, writing, systematic grammar and translation; the relationship of auditive and visual learning; the possibility of thought in the foreign language; and the best methods by which to achieve this goal.

PARKER, S. C.—*Methods of Teaching in High Schools*.

Boston, Ginn & Co., 1915. xxvii + 529 pp. \$1.50.

AN attempt to apply experimental evidence and expert opinion to the solution of problems of method in high school teaching. Discusses the aims of high school instruction, standards, economical methods of learning,

motivation, provision for individual differences, supervision of study, enrichment of the course of study, measuring the results of teaching. Two chapters, VI and VII, are of especial interest to modern language teachers. The author recommends a simplified scheme of phonetic instruction, such as the one used by Miss Schmidt in the University of Chicago High School. In the formation of motor habits (*e.g.* speaking a foreign language) imitation of a correct model is generally the most effective method of getting an idea of the act to be performed. Verbal directions may assist, but there is great danger of overemphasizing them. Ordinarily the attention of the learner should be centred on the objective result of the movement rather than on the anatomic structures by which the result is obtained. The process of habit formation is largely a trial and error one. Verbal directions are of value only if they apply to responses the child has already learned. It is better to train upon elementary movements as they are encountered in complex acts, than to train upon them in isolation. After a period of practice on the complex action, *e.g.* saying a word or phrase, some response of especial difficulty may be isolated for intensive study, but it should be worked back into the whole as soon as possible. The author disapproves of translation on the ground that it is wasteful; it involves an indirect connection *via* the English symbol, whereas the direct method avoids this intermediate step. A further difficulty with the translation method is that it prevents the learner from reading faster than he can translate. The direct method requires more skilled teachers and smaller classes; meanwhile ready-made direct systems such as Gouin's should be made available for partially-trained teachers. The author maintains in opposition to the usual opinion (*p.* 318) that

a foreign language can be learned just as economically from 15 to 18 years of age as from 6 to 9, and supports his contention by experimental evidence. The learning of a second language should be delayed until there is some assurance that the language will be used. This would result in an enormous reduction in the number of high school students studying languages.

SCHOENHERR, DR. W.—*Direkte und Indirekte Methode im Neusprachlichen Unterricht*. Leipzig, Quelle & Meyer, 1915. 83 pp. \$1.00.

PART I is an historical and theoretical study of the two named methods of modern language teaching. The author asserts the following advantages of the direct method:

- (1) It is in harmony with established psychological facts:
  - (a) In commencing with auditory and kinaesthetic imagery (speech sensations).
  - (b) In its regard for the affective factors (lists of words, dry; objects, etc., more interesting).
  - (c) In getting up a direct association between object and symbol.
  - (d) In its regard for the law of mental exercise,—*i.e.* fluency in speaking and writing is not looked for as the "intersection" of translation into foreign language and speaking in mother tongue, but as every function is brought to completion along the line in which it is practised, each activity is given its own practice, and thus the necessary psychic dispositions are created.
- (2) It takes account of the world of childish ideas.
- (3) Through its handling of grammar it educates in sharp logical thought.
- (4) It preserves the mother tongue by only allowing the child to begin translating when he is sufficiently well

grounded in each language to preserve their mutual individuality.

- (5) It saves time, because, owing to the very slight employment of the mother tongue, nearly every moment is used for the actual aim of the lesson.
- (6) It gives the pupil opportunity to choose a vocabulary which corresponds with his own nature, and thus in this respect also takes account of affective factors.

Part II reports an attempt to investigate systematically the detailed results of direct and indirect method in the acquirement of French vocabulary.

Two groups of boys aged 8-9 from two parallel classes in a Kiel school (apparently only three in each group).

The subjects were chosen by the teacher in such a way that each of the two groups apparently had the same amount of ability.

32 separate experiments, each of which lasted over several weeks, are reported.

6-10 French words were written out on sheets, the sense of each being conveyed (*a*) to "D" (direct) pupils by an illustration, (*b*) to "I" (indirect) pupils by the German equivalent.

Visual presentation of words was given only after the teacher had read them aloud, indicating at the same time the objects in the room or their reproductions. (In case of the "I" group he added the German equivalent also).

Then the class spoke the words aloud, simultaneously looking at the phonetic transcription of them.

After this the children studied the lists they had been given, taking as long as they chose. Each was timed until he announced himself ready; time was taken to indicate "speed", and number and type of errors to indicate "accuracy".

Accuracy was then tested after a week's interval by



two methods: T method *i.e.* French word given, child answered with German word, or "D" by indicating object; F method *i.e.* object or German word to be followed by the French translation by the child. (F method was obviously more difficult intrinsically,—Rev.)

Words were given in an order different from that in which they appeared on the sheets.

There were four repetitions of each type of test, with renewed learning periods between. Testing took place at regular weekly intervals. New learning periods immediately followed test.

The tables show:

- (a) every error made,
- (b) increase of learning from trial to trial,
- (c) types of errors:
  1. Inability to give the word at all.
  2. Associative errors (French, German, assimilative, etc.)
  3. Only a fragment of right word given.
  4. Gender incorrect.
  5. Other types of error.

Per cent. of words correctly remembered to total of words given (1148):

	T method	F method
D group	44.6%	41.1%
I group	30.8	29.9

#### Relative number of various types of error:

Type	D	I
Gender wrongly given	50	191
French associations	13	22
Assimilative deformations	22	50
German associations	0	19
Deformations on German model	1	13
Nasal sounds	134	221
Voiced aspirates	120	156
French "oi"	21	41
Failure to respond at all	173	297

In the first series the direct method took much longer; from then on it was quicker, but not enough to make up the original loss of time.

	D	I
1.	690 min.	546 min.
2.	168	178
3.	134.5	135
4.	122	134
Total	1114.5	993

BALLARD, ANNA W.—*The Direct Method and Its Application to American Schools*. Educational Review, 1916. Vol. 51., pp. 447-456.

THE direct method is direct in two senses,—first, in doing largely without the intermediary of the mother tongue, and second, in the appeal of the teacher's voice to the pupil's ear without the intermediary of the printed word. Grammar is not neglected, but to direct method teachers grammar is not a set of rules learned beforehand; it is deduced from the sentences learned, the same grammatical usage appearing again and again.

In teaching pronunciation, the easiest way is by using phonetics. About 2% of all students of any age are sound-deaf and language-dumb, thus having no language sense whatever. Such students should be excused early from all foreign language work, and their energies directed toward what they can do successfully. Phonetics is of great value in re-education of pupils who mispronounce foreign words.

CUMMINGS, THOS. P.—*How to Learn a Language*. New York, Cummings, 1916. 100 pp. \$1.60.

LEARNING any language involves acquisition of three things: vocabulary, pronunciation and skill in composition. In more detail the problem is to attain a mastery of

the principal words with a ready and accurate command of the endings, particles, positions, etc., whereby the language indicates the logical interrelations of its words, phrases, clauses and sentences, together with accurate, fluent, and rhythmic utterance. The chief difficulty in pronunciation does not exist in a word; true pronunciation is found only in the sentence. Thus "the" has a different pronunciation in the sentence from that which it has when it occurs alone. Inaccurate pronunciation often leads to ungrammatical use, and so, when endings are not given their accurate value they sound like different endings. The spelling of a word provides little clue to its pronunciation since different languages have different sounds for the same letter; an attempt to learn to pronounce from the spelling of a word may set up interference. Most beginners hear only their native sounds, and substitute them for the real sound of a foreign language. (Presumably, although the author does not say so, these inaccurate pronunciations persist, because in spite of their inaccuracies they function adequately.) The author recommends a sentence method that emphasizes oral work. Only in the sentence do we find the tempo and cadence that differentiate languages as clearly as vocabulary. His objection to translation is that it requires from the outset an extensive vocabulary and a wide knowledge of construction. The book was written on the basis of experience in training missionaries in African dialects.

GRANELLA, A. F.—*The Use of Flash Cards for Drill in French*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1916, Vol. 1, pp. 96-99. DESCRIBES the construction and use of flash-cards. They are of value in that they give every one a chance to recite, require rapid linguistic thinking and maintain attention.

KRAUSE, CARL A.—*The Direct Method in Modern Languages*. New York, Scribner's, 1916. 139 pp. \$1.00.

OBJECTING to Judd's contention that "there is no single best method of teaching foreign languages", Krause, in a series of essays, defines and defends the reform method. The cardinal points in this method are insistence on good pronunciation, oral work, inductive teaching of grammar, real reading and use of *realien*. Ability to speak the foreign language is to be acquired only as a means to an end,—reading ability. Grammar must follow and not precede the acquisition of a vocabulary. Translation from the foreign language into the vernacular is warranted, not as a test of the student's proficiency in the foreign language, but as a criterion of his ability to think clearly and write terse English. The trend of modern language instruction in the United States is toward a direct method. The man who cannot speak and write French and German does not know French and German. Other essays deal with the historical development of methods, and with defects of the Regents' examinations.

PALMER, H. E.—*Colloquial English, Part I. 100 Substitution Tables*. Cambridge, Heffer, 1916. 102 pp. 2s.

THIS work consists of two parts, phonetic and orthographic texts. In an introduction the author discusses substitution as the process by which any authentic sentence (as opposed to one constructed by the student himself and which may be un-English) may be multiplied indefinitely by substituting any of its words or word-groups by others of the same grammatical family. If the authentic sentence is, *I saw two books here yesterday*, it is evident that the word *two* may be replaced by any plural numeral adjective; that *I* may be replaced by any noun or pronoun, etc. The author further states that it is more



than probable that a process of unconscious substitution is the one by which children learn languages, before even knowing the meaning of the term *grammar*. The author also discusses the problem of translation, which is generally a pernicious form of exercise, resulting in false conceptions of the nature of language and in the habit of artificial sentence construction. He suggests, as an alternative form of translation-exercise that is free from these disadvantages, memorizing a model sentence and its substitutive elements, and then translating similar pattern sentences. The French pupil having learned the model, *It is sold every day* as equivalent to *on le vend tous les jours*, then translates into English, *on l'achète tous les jours*, *on le trouve tous les jours*, etc. The result of such integral translation would be a proper appreciation of the semantic value of the English sentences and a valuable corrective to the habit of literal translation.

PURIN, C. M.—*The Direct Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in American High Schools*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1916, pp. 43-51.

THE "natural" method differs from the "direct" method in three respects:

(1) It lacks the phonetic basis.

(2) In its first stages it makes no use of reading or writing.

(3) It postpones to a very late period statements of connected grammatical principles.

The essential features of the "direct" or "reform" method, on the other hand are:—

(1) Much attention is given to pronunciation, practical phonetics being made use of wherever necessary.

(2) Grammar is taught inductively, but systematically.

(3) Free composition is largely substituted for translation into the foreign tongue.

(4) Translation into the mother tongue is reduced to a minimum.

(5) Reading forms the centre of instruction, and special care is taken in the selection of the reading material.

The "reform" method as practised in Germany differs from the "direct" method by allowing a more extensive use of the mother tongue in the class-room, especially in grammar work, and by recognizing a moderate amount of translation from and into the mother tongue as a wholesome and necessary exercise.

The best that can be said of the present tendencies is that two phases of teaching are gradually becoming recognized as absolutely essential in all modern language work:

(1) Stressing of correct pronunciation.

(2) Use of connected reading material in place of isolated sentences as a basis for work in grammar in the initial stages of instruction.

The writer submits his own convictions as follows:

(1) The place of the natural method is in the grades, with children who begin the study of a foreign language at an early age (8 or 9 years). To teach by this method in a high school would mean a waste of time and energy.

(2) The direct method can be applied most effectively in the so-called junior high schools. It is feasible also in a four-year high school course, provided the instructor is able to discriminate between the more essential and the less essential features of this method.

(3) In high schools where the foreign language course comprises less than 4 years, the reform method, with considerable allowance for the use of the mother tongue in the class-room, is the only sane and effective method.

(4) In schools and classes where the chief aim is to give the learner a speaking ability the use of the direct method is not only logical but imperative.

PALMER, HAROLD E.—*The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages*. London, George H. Harrap & Co., 1917. 328 pp. \$3.25.

"SCIENTIFIC" to Palmer implies a detailed analysis of problems and an improved nomenclature. The only possible basis for a scientific study of language is philology. There is no one best method of learning a foreign language. The method to be used depends on the age, previous study, motive, temperament, etc. of the student in question. Another important factor is the ability to imitate. In the author's opinion there are two types of students, those who can imitate anything and those who can imitate nothing. Presumably the latter group had such an ability in early life, but by ten years of age this power has become dormant. This ability enabled them to acquire their native tongue; it must be re-developed if they are ever to learn a second language. During the initial period of study, the phonetic, orthographic, etymological, semantic and ergonic aspects of language must be segregated from each other and taught independently. There are four ways in which the meaning of a unit of language may be conveyed to the pupil: (1) by associating the unit with the object designated; (2) by associating the unit with the equivalent native unit; (3) by associating the unit with its definition; (4) by giving examples in context. Translation should not be ignored as a method of study. Phonetics is essential for those who wish to learn the spoken language: it is useful for all, it is an aid to spelling, but it is possible to lay too much stress on it. On pp. 139-224 the author outlines a programme of study

that he considers to be scientific. The most serious handicaps to foreign language learning are the neglect of its peculiar characteristics, the artificial separation of single words from thought-groups, over-reliance on visual memory, and exaggeration of bilingual consciousness.

PATTERSON, A. S.—*Language Fact and Language Habit*.  
Mod. Lang. Jour., 1917, Vol. 1, pp. 136-142.

A FOREIGN language is both a science and an art, and demands a conscious assimilation of language facts together with the building up of subconscious habits. The learning of the genders of French nouns by rules has long been largely superseded by verbal associations with the definite article, which is a habit-forming process. This principle can be advantageously extended to the teaching of other grammatical facts, such as the government of verbs or the manner in which a verb is connected with a dependent infinitive.

In the matter of teaching pronunciation the correlation between fact and habit is particularly essential. A student of a language which is not spelled as it is pronounced is helpless if he forgets the pronunciation of a word or meets a word for the first time, unless he is acquainted with a phonetic alphabet and the principles underlying it.

UMBACH, E.—*Ziele und Wege des Sprachunterrichts*.  
Leipzig, Quelle & Meyer, 1917. iv + 61 pp. 50 cents.

AN attack on the extreme position taken by direct methodists like Walter, with their "Sprechübungen," based on insignificant trifles taken from daily life, and of value only for the few who can expect to go abroad. As a substitute, the author, apparently a member of the "Germanisten-Verband", advocates closer relations with the teaching of German, for the lower school the study of



grammar, for the upper, reading, with a considerable increase in amount.

This brochure reflects passions and animosities aroused by the war, but is interesting as raising the question (still much discussed in Germany) of the relative position of foreign language study to that of the native language and civilization, and the formation of the "echt Deutscher",—the goal, apparently of all present-day elementary and secondary education in Germany.

SCHWEITZER and SIMONNOT.—*Méthodologie des langues vivantes*. Paris, Armand Colin, 1921 (1st edit. 1917). viii + 296 pp. 85 cents.

CHAPTER I deals with the progress of the reform method in Germany and presents data with regard to its acceptance in most other countries of the world. Because of its general adoption, it is naïvely assumed that "the direct method rests on natural laws". The major positions of the authors can be assumed from their support of a direct method,—the use of phonetics, (without exaggeration of phonetic transcription), the acquisition of a vocabulary through association of words with actions and objects, the use of the foreign language in explanations, inductive method of grammar teaching. All new words are first a part of the passive vocabulary; the aim of teaching is to make them active. Many suggestions are given for class exercises.

The authors state very frankly that the aim of the instruction is utilitarian, that the pupils will begin at the age of 10 or 11, that they should remain under the same teacher (or at least in the same school) for 6 or 7 years, and that the teacher should have the advantage of extended acquaintance with the country whose language he teaches.

SKIDMORE, MARK.—*The Direct Method*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1917, pp. 215-225.

A QUESTIONNAIRE sent to 140 members of the Modern Language Association revealed unanimity on the following essential features of the direct method:

1. Good pronunciation (practical phonetics);
2. Real reading, not mere eye-reading;
3. Systematic oral work;
4. A modicum of grammar,—preferably taught inductively;
5. A minimum of translation;
6. Much use of "free composition".

TITSWORTH, P. E.—*Devices for Class-room Procedure*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1917, pp. 68-77.

EACH recitation should be so planned that as many of the sense departments are used as possible. Usually the class should receive its impressions of the foreign idiom by first hearing it, then seeing it, afterwards speaking it, and lastly, writing it. The article presents 28 devices for oral and written composition, 11 for reading, 23 for grammar work, 9 for dictation work, 13 for word study and 7 miscellaneous devices, which the author has found useful in achieving this ideal.

ADAMS, JOHN (Edit.).—*The New Teaching*. London, Hodder and Stoughton, 1918 (1st ed.), 1919 (2nd ed.). vii + 428 pp. *Modern Foreign Languages*, by Louis de Glehn, pp. 73-127. 10s. 6d.

CHAPTER III by Louis de Glehn contains an exposition of the principles of the direct method and some suggestions as to the detailed working out of a curriculum based on the principles of that method. The author takes it for granted that the primary aim of modern foreign language

study is the acquisition of oral skill. This is to be followed by writing and reading. Translation comes as a "pleasant diversion". "Language-sense has its roots in the spoken tongue". All associations must be direct from object or experience to foreign language expression, without the intervention of any rival speech. The speech unit must be the sentence. Grammar is to be learned inductively. To ensure that correct pronunciation is obtained there must be an early and relatively prolonged period of reading and writing in phonetic script. Five advantages of phonetic training are noted. The content for elementary, intermediate and advanced programmes is outlined; the elementary stage is one of speaking, the intermediate is essentially the stage of narrative, and the advanced stage is essentially one of reading and writing.

ANGUS, FRANCES R.—*Advanced High School French in War Times*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1918, pp. 352-359.

DESCRIBES the work carried on with mixed classes of 10 to 20 in number, seniors, juniors and sophomores, grouped, as far as possible, according to their mental development. Discusses various methods of securing "reality" in French. Presents certain conclusions drawn from tabulations made by the pupils themselves from their work:

- (1) Those pupils who read aloud most faithfully at home make the most progress in pronunciation.
- (2) The pupil works with more concentration after comparing his results with those of a pupil who already has that habit.
- (3) The average of 9 new words in each lesson is right for the average pupil of the high school level.

*Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education. A Report of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary*

*Education, appointed by the National Education Association.* Washington, Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 35, 1918. 10 cents.

THE satisfactory completion of any well-planned high school curriculum should be accepted as a preparation for college, thus accentuating the responsibility of the secondary school. Secondary education should be determined by the needs of the society to be served, the character of the individuals to be educated, and the knowledge of educational theory and practice. Within the last generation there has been an extraordinary social change in the secondary school population: the number of pupils has risen from 1 to every 210 of the total population in 1889-1890 to 1 to every 73 of the population in 1914-1915. Fewer pupils now complete their courses, only one in nine now graduating from the high school. Recent changes in educational theory are analysed as: (1) greater consideration for individual differences; (2) a re-examination of subject values and teaching methods; (3) importance of applying knowledge to the activities of life rather than in terms of the demands of any subject as a logically organized science; (4) continuity in the development of children. Corollary to these principles is the theory that deferred values must be subordinated. Many subjects are now so organized as to be of little value until the pupil studies them for several years, but each year should be of definite value to those who go no farther. Simple aspects of direct application must therefore be taken up in the first year, deferring refinements for later years.

JERUSALEM, WM.—*Problems of the Secondary Teacher.* Boston, The Gorham Press, 1918. *Modern Languages* (pp. 106-109). \$1.75



INSTRUCTION in modern languages as in classics is supposed to contribute to a deeper understanding of language in general, but the most important aim is the practical command of the language of a modern people.

Psychological training is quite as important in instruction in modern linguistics as in ancient. The teacher of German above all else needs a comprehensive historico-philosophic and a literary-aesthetic training.

KITTSOON, E. C.—*Theory and Practice of Language Teaching, with special reference to French and German.*

Oxford University Press, 1918. xiv + 186 pp. \$1.25.

DIRECT method *à outrance*: the study of linguistic phenomena from the point of view of the linguist and the psychologist as a foundation for right methods of teaching. The work is based on acknowledged authorities and the author's own experience. Learning to speak a language is the shortest road to learning to read it and to write it. A language must be acquired by using it. By using it the pupil covers more ground in a given time than by written exercises. In learning a foreign language we must aim at forgetting, for the time being, the linguistic habits acquired in our own. The characteristic intonation of a language should be taught from the beginning. Grammatical discussions are deferred until the pupil has attained some measure of command over the foreign tongue. There is a good bibliography: language, grammar, phonetics, method, prosody, dictionaries, literature, history, civilization.

*Modern Studies, Being the Report of the Committee on the Position of Modern Languages in The Educational System of Great Britain.* London, His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1918. xxiii + 257 pp. 1s. 6d.

THIS report is now so familiar to students of modern languages that an extended reference here is uncalled for. The conclusions are based on evidence received from witnesses representing commercial, financial, industrial, professional, university, secondary school, and other interests. There are introductory chapters on the history of the study of modern languages in Great Britain, their neglect, their value, and the relative importance of the several languages. The second part is devoted to means of instruction, including methods and examinations. Finally, there are conclusions and recommendations, and in the appendices, among other things, a letter from thirty-one modern language professors and readers.

The chief interest of *Modern Studies* lies in its inspired defence of modern languages, although as Great Britain is belated in its full recognition of the subject as of equal importance with classical studies,—chiefly because of strong prejudices at the older and more conservative universities,—much of this interest is local, other countries having long since surmounted this initial difficulty.

Values are considered under such headings as business, increase of knowledge, foreign countries and peoples, public service (Foreign Office, etc.), a means to general education and culture.

From a definition of the high ideal of Modern Studies, the following paragraph is quoted:

“It will not suffice to base the claims of Modern Studies solely on the practical needs of individuals or even of the nation. We need an ideal such as inspires the highest classical studies. The best work will never be done with an eye to material profit. We must frame our ideal so that it can be consistently pursued through the whole course of school and university life, and even beyond. The first object in schools must be to lay the foundation

of scholarship and skilled facility of expression and comprehension. The 'more or less', the 'there or thereabouts', is not good enough in language, or in any other instrument of culture or information; the standard of accuracy and of form cannot be too high. Early we should also aspire to make some of the boys and girls understand that foreign languages are not learnt as an end in themselves, but as a means to the comprehension of foreign peoples, whose history is full of fascinating adventure, who have said and felt and seen and made things worthy of our comprehension, who are now alive and engaged in like travail with ourselves, who see things differently from ourselves and therefore can the better help us to understand what is the whole of truth. Before the boys and girls leave school, by history and literature and other helps to instruction, they should be convinced that the study of foreign peoples is an attractive pursuit and that it cannot be carried far without an intimate knowledge of their languages. Then we shall have as entrants to our universities men and women who are fit to range, without direct assistance, the whole learning and literature of the languages they elect to follow, and require from their professors only the higher aid. Some of these at their graduation should be finished scholars, ready to become masters and experts in all that appertains to the countries and the peoples that they choose for study. All this can be done for Greece and Rome; why not for France and Germany, for Italy and Spain?"

Under Means of Instruction much sound opinion will be found on such matters as the content of an ideal course and how it can be realized, size of classes, hours of staff, age of beginning ("The early years are needed for the foundations of general education . . . The pupil is not ripe for the reflective study of languages. Interest in the

foreign idiom is soon dissipated . . . Stage of intellectual development is more important than the actual age of the pupil”), and so on. Chapter VIII deals with moderns at the universities; chapter XI is devoted to method (“The method will vary with the aim and circumstances of the student . . . The choice of method must depend on teacher’s qualification.”); and examinations, which, it is recommended, should be better adjusted to modern methods of teaching, the oral examination to be introduced wherever possible.

—A pamphlet that may in some ways be considered supplementary to this report is *A Memorandum on the Position of Grant-aided Secondary Schools in England* (*ibid.*, 1926. 9d), prepared by Dr. F. Spencer, Staff Inspector of Secondary Schools. This memorandum embodies conclusions based on a formal inquiry conducted into the conditions obtaining in about one thousand schools, on other inspectors’ reports, and memoranda supplied by persons qualified in modern languages. Dr. Spencer deals with staffing, aims, aspects of teaching, libraries (“seriously inadequate”), and teacher training, and has produced one of the most useful contemporary treatises on practice.

H.O.C.—*Modern Languages*. Educational Times, 1919, pp. 142-3, 234-236.

WE shall never develop anything like a standardized and permanent system of language teaching out of our present experimental stage till we have clear ideas on the actual matter to be taught, as distinct from the process of teaching it. What is knowing a language? What is the position of the native in regard to his own spoken language? He possesses:

(1) A very large number of the most frequently used



sentences, phrases and terms "on the tip of his tongue".

- (2) The power to form new sentences and phrases, on the analogy of those he has on the tip of his tongue.
- (3) The power to understand any sentence, however rapidly spoken.

The essentials of method are:

- (1) The first stage must consist of learning the most frequently used sentences by heart, however much this process may be disguised by the direct method of question and answer, etc.
- (2) The grammar will consist entirely of such explanations and paradigms as will enable the pupil to understand the structure of the "tip-of-the-tongue" sentences, with a view to applying the analogies correctly when forming new sentences.
- (3) The pupil will be accustomed, as far as possible, to understand sentences spoken at correct speed.
- (4) With a view to saving the pupil from forgetting what he has learned (chiefly from forgetting words) and introducing him gradually to the literature, there will be "rapid readers" with vocabularies and translations, or, failing translations, with notes to help the pupil over the hard passages.
- (5) With a view to anticipating the mistakes which arise by faulty transference of the native idiom to the foreign language, there will be at a very late stage a limited amount of idiomatic translation from the native into the foreign language.

All the principles that apply to the teaching of the spoken language apply equally well to the written. What is essential is to realize that the spoken and written are two distinct though very similar languages, and that if

we do not preserve this distinction our pupils will never learn to use either correctly.

We must implore all future writers on methods to observe the following rules:—

1. Before setting pen to paper read:

(a) H. Sweet, *Practical Study of Languages*;

(b) H. E. Palmer, *Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages*.

When you have read the latter you won't talk so glibly of banishing the mother tongue from the modern language class-room, nor be so sure that *free* conversation is the best means of acquiring fluency.

2. Avoid the question of educative value. Confine yourself to the most expeditious method of giving the mastery of a language. No man on earth, being shown a way of learning a language in 3 weeks, will deliberately prefer a method that takes him 3 years for the sake of the educative value.

FISCHER, ALOYS.—*Sprachpsychologische Untersuchungsmethoden im Dienst von Erziehung und Unterricht*.

Ztsch. f. Päd. Psych., 1919, xx, pp. 334-347.

A DISCUSSION of methods of investigation of speech development. Twelve methods are listed: (1) report of everyday speech, (2) report of some particular experience the child has had, (3) reproduction of a story in words of the story (rote memory), (4) reproduction of a story in words of the child, (5) construction of a thought, given the facts or elements, (6) letters and diaries of adolescents, (7) school themes on assigned topics, (8) free literary efforts in school and outside, (9) study of the antecedents of literary expression, e.g. authors studied, (10) ability to turn a literary expression into colloquial speech, (11) comprehension of relations implied in

written language, (12) statistical studies of reading preferences.

PALMER, H. E., and MOTTE, C.—*Colloquial French, I. French Fluency Exercises*. Cambridge, Heffer, 1919. (second ed.) 50 pp. 1s. 6d.

THIS applies the method described above (p. 136) to French, but chiefly for acquiring fluency. Rapid colloquial style is given throughout, the rate of speech being indicated in the headings. Students are reminded that rapidity is not only desirable for exercising the articulatory muscles, but is also in many cases necessary for the correct pronunciation. Fifty pattern sentences and substitutive equivalents are given.

*Translation vs. Oral Practice. The Student's Attitude.*  
Editorial in *Hisp.*, 1919, pp. 249-253.

THE article reports the answers to a questionnaire given to first and second year classes in Spanish. Approximately 51 per cent. expressed preference for translation and 38 per cent. for oral practice, while 11 per cent. had no choice.

Only 18.6 per cent. preferred translation alone, while only 18 per cent. wanted oral practice alone. Most students preferred a combination of the two features.

Many students expressed a desire for a combination of grammar and oral drill or grammar and translation, but so far as the classification would allow, 35 per cent. expressed greatest need for translation, 18 per cent. for grammar, 34 per cent. for oral work, and 12.4 per cent. felt that they needed all three.

The reasons for studying Spanish were many and varied. 56.5 per cent. indicated purely utilitarian motives, —commerce, teaching, etc. 20 per cent. were frank

enough to admit that college credit to absolve language requirements for graduation was their sole motive. Fifteen assigned cultural value and sixteen were taking Spanish because of interest in language work. That students generally recognize the impracticability of learning to speak fluently a foreign language in the class-room seems clearly indicated by the answers.

ATKINS, H. G., and HUTTON, H. L.—*The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in School and University*. London, Arnold, 1920. viii + 246 pp. \$1.50.

THE first part, the school section, opens with an examination of the claims of modern languages to a place in a national system of education: clear self-expression in speech and writing, intelligent recitation and reading aloud of prose and verse, the power of discrimination both in taste and logic, a fund of information and ideas, an orderly knowledge of the content and structure of some masterpieces, the development of the sense of beauty.

In the chapter on organization there is a discussion of the nationality of the teaching staff. The organization and all responsible posts should be in the hands of Englishmen. This chapter contains a warning against the danger to the teacher of excessive specialization. Most teachers do better for a varied time-table and it is urged that modern language teachers should do a certain amount of English teaching. Great stress is laid upon the need for the modern language staff to work together as a team, modifying its peculiarities so as to fit in one with another. Teaching is far too often regarded as an individual instead of a corporate process, to the great loss of efficiency in the school.

There is insistence throughout, as in *Modern Studies*,



on the need for broadening the conception of the work of the modern language teacher by including history, geography, art—in fact the whole culture of the foreign people. There are helpful suggestions as to how this additional knowledge can be worked in. At a later stage the teaching of foreign history becomes more systematic; and again useful suggestions are made as to historical texts, historical novels, memoirs, etc. which can be used at the various stages. A helpful scheme is given for the study of German history in three stages.

In the chapter on method a warning is given on the use of phonetics. The untrained teacher can mispronounce the phonetic symbols as easily as the ordinary script. Many teachers seem to regard the script as a panacea for all ills of pronunciation, whereas it is mainly a very useful device for avoiding false associations. In the section on grammar stress is laid on the fact that the isolated word has little importance compared with the phrase and the sentence. The foreign association must be established.

The section on advanced courses contains the whole history of this somewhat thorny question. It is pointed out that as yet the examining bodies have failed to realize the need for close co-ordination of history and literature in the higher examinations. The chapter is full of practical suggestions as to method, texts, historical novels, etc. which cannot fail to help any modern language teacher.

The university section of the book opens with a very sane discussion of the nationality of the teaching staff. Broadly speaking, it is suggested that all permanent posts should in future be open to Englishmen only, whilst there is plenty of scope for the foreigner in temporary junior posts.

There is a chapter on the organization of modern language teaching in the university, and a discussion of

the difficult problem of how to deal with practical tests in reading and writing a foreign language as apart from the higher work in literary appreciation and linguistic studies. Professor Atkins is inclined to test the practical command of the language by a separate certificate examination. The book concludes with a useful bibliography. (Adapted from a review by H. Nicholson in *Modern Languages*, December, 1920.)

CASTILLO, C.—*A First Course in Spanish Conversation in College*. Mod. Lang. Journal, 1920, pp. 331-335.

OWING to lack of time in our college elementary courses, oral practice and phonetic drill are reduced to the minimum and are often encroached upon by the other requirements of the course, such as reading, translating and the various types of drills demanded by the grammar and the composition book. The task in the conversation class will be, first, to train the ear, second, to enlarge the student's active vocabulary, and third, to enrich his fund of idioms.

1. Train the ear:

- (a) by dictation of isolated words,
- (b) by dictation of words as they stand in a group surrounded by other sounds which react variously upon each other.

2. Enlarge the active vocabulary:

- (a) The study of synonyms and antonyms, derivatives, compounds, cognates and similar words is of great value.
- (b) The results accomplished by the intelligent use at home of the unilingual dictionary are very gratifying.
- (c) Definitions to explain words sometimes help.
- (d) Study of idioms.

FLETCHER, W. H.—*The Translation Method of Teaching Latin*. J. Educ. Psych., 1920, pp. 1-15.

DESCRIBES a translation method in which a few new words are learned each day. All new words are learned in context, and emphasis throughout is on reading. The method is much more effective than the grammar method and much less time is needed to bring the prescribed course to the required degree of efficiency.

GUICHARD, A. M.—*L'Enseignement Grammatical*. Rev. de l'Enseign. des lang. viv., 1920, pp. 135-136.

THE writer describes and contrasts deductive and inductive methods of teaching grammar, and describes, with numerous illustrations, how the inductive method can be used in teaching introductory courses.

WILKINS, E. H.—*First Italian Book*. University of Chicago Press, 1920. ix + 164 pp. \$1.30.

THE author believes that in the teaching of a modern language to students who have passed the age of childhood, the study of grammar as such and the effort to train students to speak and write should be postponed until an understanding of the language has been attained. This he believes is true even for those who desire primarily a practical speaking and writing knowledge,—a position that is likewise held by West, Bond, Holzknecht, and others, who prescribe a period of observation and absorption before creative activity is attempted. The practice of composition begun prematurely produces the habit of framing a foreign sentence as a "succession of isolated words". On the other hand, where grammar itself is presented as the primary object of study, material is included which is of secondary importance, and the order of treatment impedes progress.

In his grammar, Wilkins therefore stresses practice in the *recognition* of sounds and grammatical forms.

BAIN, A. WATSON.—*The Modern Teacher*. London, Methuen & Co., 1921. (*The Teaching of Modern Languages*, by Professor R. L. Graeme Ritchie, pp. 55-86). 10s. 6d.

THE study of a modern language falls naturally into three divisions, the language, the literature, and the life of a nation.

Those trained exclusively under the direct method have a living interest in the language which makes them very pleasant to deal with as pupils, but are at all times liable to make elementary errors, and eventually are outdistanced by their rivals. Present practice tends towards a judicious mixture of the new method and the old.

While the study of phonetics is a useful basis, it is not an end in itself, neither does it move on a very high intellectual plane.

The practice of learning passages by heart teaches proper diction, and might well be extended.

The schools where we have found the soundest knowledge of French, both spoken and written, are those few where the first year is spent largely on formal grammar and "sentences", and where reading is postponed till the following year.

Although the time allotted to translation is a matter of opinion, some practice in it at all stages seems absolutely essential. It should be considered the supreme test of knowledge of the foreign language in all the more advanced school examinations.

Composition is of no direct practical value for it is difficult to conceive a profession, other than teaching, in



which composition would be the daily task. Yet it plays a useful part for it teaches incidentally a great deal of necessary information about grammar, gender, and vocabulary.

The first step toward reform in literature is to abandon the well-intentioned modern custom of reading in class nothing but complete works. The main subject of literary study in modern languages should be modern or contemporary literature.

Knowledge of a foreign language is coming to be regarded no longer as an end in itself, but as a means to intelligent understanding of the foreign nation, its daily life, outlook, national aims and aspirations.

FISHER, A.—*Modern Languages by Way of Esperanto*.  
Mod. Lang., 1921, pp. 179-182.

REPORTS a year's experiment in the use of Esperanto as an introduction to a modern foreign language. The pupils were a selected group of unusual ability. No objective measures of the values of Esperanto are recorded. The pupils reported a positive transfer to French vocabulary learning, whereas the use of the indefinite article and French phonetics became more difficult.

KIRSTEN, M.—*Zur pädagogisch-psychologischen Grundlegung der neusprachlichen Reform*. Neueren Sprachen, 1921, pp. 30-44, 113-133.

A CRITICAL reconsideration of the direct method problem from the standpoint of pedagogy and psychology, and at the same time a valuable review of contributions made by such German scholars as Winkler, Kappert, Klinghardt, Eggert, Meumann, Wundt, Ulbrich, Ziehen, Flagstad, Beyer, Franke, Seidemann, and others.

The conflict over the reform method is still, after

thirty-five years, undecided. The chief reason for this is that the psychological-pedagogic foundation was at the outset insecure, owing to the exclusive consideration of practical experience only. Even yet no clear-cut method has been evolved that, in the first place, is sound pedagogically, and, in the second place, considers the psychology of language learning. What Walter and other great language teachers accomplished cannot be imitated by less gifted teachers, who form the majority. The result is that teaching by the reform method becomes unsystematic improvisation, and teachers, although convinced of its good qualities, fail in practice and succumb to a compromise method that leads to general confusion.

The author considers the procedure needed to organize a complete foreign language methodology. The following possibilities are taken up:

(1) Language may, with Kant, be considered as the expression of logical thought. A system based on such a false assumption would be an analytical consideration of grammatical rules and exceptions.

(2) The "maître" or Berlitz method, which seeks to imitate a sojourn abroad; an impracticable scheme in that a few lessons a week cannot be an adequate equivalent.

(3) A biogenetic method based on the history of the evolution of language,—gestures, interjections, onomatopoeic sounds, etc., or Jespersen's theory of the origin of language in love and rutting. Such a method can only serve for occasional explanations of etymology and grammar.

(4) A system might be based on language development in the child, which like the Berlitz method would resemble a sojourn abroad. The child's first linguistic efforts are emotional and volitional, intellectualization proceeding gradually; whereas in scholastic language-

learning the method must be intellectual. "Natural" and "methodical" are moreover different things,—the former being only a synonym for "unmethodical", and therefore opposed to sound pedagogic principles. Methods must, moreover, as in all other subjects (history, mathematics, etc.), follow the development of the subject itself.

(5) Psychological analysis has been applied to language and speech, but what may be sound psychology may not have pedagogic value. The author here goes into a detailed study of Wundt's theory of the sentence, and Eggert's supplementary contention (like Gouin's) that the verb is the most important element. Kirsten refuses to accept the sentence as a foundation for a method. The verb "donner", as the author contends, clings to the memory better than "donnâmes".

A satisfactory, all-embracing principle the author finds in Hermann Paul (*Prinzipien der Sprachgeschichte*, p. 111), who declared that the sentence is a symbol to indicate that thought (the combination of ideas) is complete in the mind (*Seele*) of the speaker and is a means of reproducing the same idea or ideas in the hearer. This is not a matter of logic, but only indicates that all the associations of ideas are bound up with their linguistic expression. In other words, a sentence is the syntactical-verbal representation, not of a grammatical paragraph but of a psychological-logical function. The new language method must rest on this fundamental thought process. Words will then serve in a sentence as addition does in mathematics,—in endless combination, function being the important factor, with the corollary that language method should resemble the teaching of mathematics with which it has a strong psychological relationship. This would, moreover, enhance the formal value of language learning,

the mastery of a foreign tongue thus strengthening a sense for logical relations, which is the aim of all education.

The second part deals with concrete applications of the principle. Practice of a grammatical function must be given immediately: grammar must therefore follow ideas and the acquisition of vocabulary. The child knows nothing about grammar. The objective of foreign language learning is to teach the pupil new language functions (and ideas), and so to drill and fix them, that he can use them as he does his mother tongue; in other words, to learn to think in the foreign language. If this cannot be achieved, then all formal (direct) educative value is taken from language learning. Kirsten refers to Büttner's *Die Muttersprache im fremdsprachlichen Unterricht*, and reconsiders the problem of thinking in a foreign language. He regrets that experimental evidence is lacking for the study of the mechanism of thought in general. Thinking and speaking a foreign language must be distinguished. The former needs only the association of words and ideas, without consideration of their syntactical relations. Correct syntactical constructions are not the business of thought, but of speech, and that is a matter of practice. The only way to make thinking in a foreign language possible is to produce a pure association environment; everything that suggests the vernacular must be excluded—hence also translation. Every language has its individual characteristics,—associations, sounds, types of sentence (here the author adopts the Gouin sentences, to be learned as patterns), rhythm, accent, etc.

To conclude: the aim of foreign language methodology should be to create pure associations ("Assoziations-sphäre") which embrace a unified and complete ("geschlossenes") system of ideas and grammatical forms, sounds, and characteristic rhythmical power. The author



then outlines courses in which the pure associations are developed,—always by the use of the foreign tongue.

PALMER, H. E.—*The Oral Method of Teaching Languages, A Monograph on Conversational Methods together with a Full Description and Abundant Examples of Fifty Appropriate Forms of Work*. Cambridge, Heffer, 1923 (first ed. 1921). ix + 134 pp. 5s.

MERE enthusiasm for the oral method will not suffice; it must be associated with a rational technique and a systematic and graded programme, which the author here provides. The first part reconsiders the problem of the oral method in the light of what has been written about it and the author's extensive experience in its use. Direct method and oral method are not necessarily synonymous terms. The practical linguist who uses the oral method has utilitarian aims, and is interested only in the acquisition of a working knowledge of a language. Those who initiated the direct method (educational and academic authorities) were inspired by the higher purposes in the teaching of language, the access to the best thoughts and institutions of a foreign nation, its literature and culture. The two systems have this in common, that they are modern reactions against antiquated methods. The direct method in its extreme form excludes the use of traditional orthography for the first stage; the oral method, in its extreme form excludes any form of writing whatever and specifies that there shall be no reading matter at all. Palmer summarizes Eggert's three arguments in favour of oral assimilation (*Der psychologische Zusammenhang in der Didaktik des neusprachlichen Reformunterrichts*, in the *Zeitschrift für französischen und englischen Unterricht*, 1902 and 1904): it can bring about a practical mastery of speech; it is in accordance with the psychological

analysis of speech representation; it takes into consideration the pupil's natural disposition or gift. Palmer concludes that the oral method is not a complete method in itself, but is a necessary feature or phase of the complete method and should be the natural and indispensable prelude to the study of foreign languages in schools. Instead of starting written French at the age of eleven, as at present, the child could start learning French at the age of nine or ten.

In the second part the author puts into logical order the heterogeneous mass of devices, drills, exercises and practices generally considered collectively as the conversational or oral method, and divided into two classes: (a) purely receptive work, and (b) receptive and productive work.

PALMER, HAROLD E.—*The Principles of Language Study*.  
Yonkers-on-Hudson, World Book Co., 1921. 185 pp.  
\$1.60.

THE capacities underlying language learning may be grouped under two headings: *spontaneous* (native) capacities and *studial* capacities. The former are employed by the child in the learning of a language: he makes no conscious effort to learn and he becomes proficient without intellectual activity. This is the explanation of the success of the child in a bilingual atmosphere, and he learns two or more languages without mutual detriment. But these native abilities become latent with increasing age, and as a consequence the adult cannot learn a foreign language as readily as a child. Those who have maintained the spontaneous capacity for language in an active state are said to have a gift for languages. Studial capacities are used in learning to read and write a language. (The distinction between *spontaneous* and *studial* seems

to the reviewer to be made on the basis of the sense departments involved, auditory perception and verbal response being the former, visual perception and manual response comprising the latter). The "natural" method is one that uses the spontaneous capacities, and this approach should always precede any attempts at learning to read and write.

The major portion of the book is devoted to the elaboration of a set of principles which the author believes should be considered by anyone who attempts to design a modern language course. These principles in brief are: (1) The student must first be trained to redevelop his spontaneous capacities, by ear-training exercises, articulation exercises, etc.; (2) language learning is largely the formation of habits; it is of little value to discuss the reason for sentence constructions; (3) all work must be accurate,—sounds, spelling, inflexions, etc.; (4) the course must be graded, ears before eyes, oral repetition before reading, etc.; (5) a balance must be maintained between the various branches of linguistics,—phonetics, orthography, word-building and semantics; (6) the actual environment of the student is the best source of language material; (7) interest must be maintained throughout: difficulty is not necessarily an unfavourable factor, but bewilderment always is; (8) the rational order of progression is:—form sounds, memorize sentences, form sentences, form words; (9) no one method should be used to the exclusion of all others. The chief evil in modern methods is not the use of translation, but the exaggerated attention to grammar; translation may be in some cases beneficial.

PAUL, H.—*Ueber Sprachunterricht*. Halle, Niemeyer, 1921.  
29 pp. 20 cents.

SAGE observations by a famous student of languages. The best method depends on objectives: languages are learned for their own sake (for philological purposes) or as a means to some end. In the school the highest aims cannot be achieved, and, as in other branches of study, limits must be set on what can be accomplished. For oral use, colloquial speech must be mastered. In the beginning it is best to use the direct method, but it is a mistake to think that interference from the mother tongue can be avoided. Moreover it would be a pity to have to learn a foreign language as one learns one's mother tongue with its concomitant psychological development. The time spent in translating into Latin could be better spent in reading Latin,—the only objective or purpose of learning Latin being to gain access to Roman life and civilization. Translation moreover produces a Latinized German. As Cicero is made the special model of good Latinity, undue attention is given to him to the neglect of other Latin writers who have had a deeper influence on German literature.

The layman expects pupils to learn to speak modern languages, but only a relatively small number of high school students ever have need to converse with foreigners. The acquisition of this ability does not therefore justify the effort. The most important objective is reading. In the class-room therefore modern language study is much the same as for Latin and Greek, emphasis being laid on spiritual development. In moderns, however, pupils can make more rapid progress.

Paul, as might be expected, stresses the matter of language development. Pages 21-22 are devoted to the subject, with illustrations from English and German that can be warmly recommended to the attention of teachers of German.



REAMAN, G. E.—*A Method of Teaching English to Foreigners*. (Ph.D. Thesis, Cornell University, 1921). 64 pp.

THE author examines the relative values of several methods of teaching English to foreigners,—Roberts', Goldberger's, Gouin's series, and a pictorial method. As measures of the relative value of these systems he proposes certain inquiries. These are: (1) What is the essential core of language? Roberts, Goldberger and Gouin employ the verb as the nucleus, but the author considers the noun to be the proper centre. His reasons for this are: (a) the noun is historically the first speech-unit to appear; (b) the foreigner makes his wants known by gestures pointing to or graphically describing objects. His first need is for nouns. If he knows the names of the chief objects of his experience, he can make himself understood. (c) The noun is the core of the deaf-mute language. Hence the author considers that chief emphasis should be placed on the noun,—Ollendorff's contention. (2) Is the method used in learning the vernacular in any peculiar way a "natural" method for learning a second language? The opinion is advanced that it is not. To Gouin's declaration that "to learn to speak any language is as natural and easy for a child as learning to fly is to a bird", he replies, "as easy as a bird learning to fly with its feet uppermost after it has learned to fly in the usual fashion". When one starts to learn a second language, he already possesses a complicated speech pattern which has a constant tendency to conflict with acquisition in the new tongue. The child is unlike the foreigner in that the latter thinks in one way, and has to express himself in another.

The author prefers the pictorial method, since, (1) it allows for presentation of a large body of experience,

(2) it motivates better, securing better attention, (3) it secures learning directly, rather than through the mother tongue, as is the case when dictionaries are used, (4) it is less fatiguing than the Gouin method, (5) many foreigners use it themselves.

CERF, BARRY.—*Aims in the Teaching of Modern Languages.*

Mod. Lang. Jour., 1922, pp. 419-440.

AN important discussion of attainable aims in modern language learning. The writer would require all to learn to read primarily by the translation method, and to understand the spoken language, but considers it futile for all to attempt to learn to speak. Such training should be limited to those with ability, and with interest in, or need for, this skill,—probably one per cent. of the population. The vocabulary, too, must be limited for the majority of pupils. The attempt in French classes to present the French point of view fails because this effort is isolated, and is insignificant in the face of the strong Anglo-American background of the pupil. The present programme is too extensive, and in attempting to achieve all, nothing is satisfactorily accomplished.

CHURCHMAN, P. H.—*Making Oral Work Count.* Mod.

Lang. Jour., 1922, pp. 441-446.

EVEN if we take the position that the chief business of our language classes is to teach students to read or to drill them in written work, we have to reckon with the psychological facts that ear and mouth are for the average young persons means of learning languages to be compared in importance with eye and hand, and that, from the viewpoint of interest, oral-aural exercises have far greater value than writing and translating. We need not, therefore, enlist in any extreme school in order to argue that oral work is important.

While not necessarily bound up with the semi-inductive method of approach for beginners, the writer's plan is intimately associated with it. It differs from the conventional plan simply in that it separates the work of the first year into two stages; first, a brief, cursory survey, limited to work of the "recognition" sort, and then, the usual intensive or productive stage. This recognition process is devoted exclusively to getting the meaning of the exercises in each lesson, no attention being paid to rules, etc. Weekly tests are given in which a few oral sentences appear, being spoken by the teacher and translated by the class in writing. When this process is well started, the class returns to the beginning of the book to straighten things out by an intensive review. The semester examination includes two sorts of aural and oral tests. In the first place there are a few questions asked slowly by the teacher before the whole class, which each student is expected to answer in writing. Besides this, each member of the class is subjected to a short oral interview with the teacher.

CRAWFORD, J. P. W.—*Philology in High School Spanish*.  
Mod. Lang. Jour., 1922, pp. 173-177.

THE pupils should be made to realize in the early stages of their study that Spanish is not only the sole medium of communication between persons in a very considerable portion of the world but that the language itself is the product of many centuries of growth and change. The material for word study is available in any word list or vocabulary, and the pupils should be encouraged to examine this material and formulate their own rules. The author discusses points to be included in the inquiry, which are familiar to teachers who have the most elementary knowledge of historical Spanish grammar, but which are

unfamiliar to most pupils. If the class knows no Latin, the study will be limited chiefly to the Spanish and English cognates in the groups mentioned. The study of etymology will introduce a note of variety in the recitation and will create a critical attitude towards words, English as well as Spanish.

KIRKMAN, F. B.—*Research in Modern Language Instruction: Its Uses and Difficulties*. Mod. Lang., 1922, pp. 100-106, 131-135.

AN investigation by Dr. Rouse into the teaching of Latin in the Perse school showed that boys who had spent only one-third of the time usually devoted to Latin did as well, when properly taught, as those who had given full time to the subject. This suggests that the same may be true of other subjects, and that what our schools are suffering from is not so much an overloaded curriculum as an uneconomical use of time. The answer must come from systematic research. The article enumerates some urgent problems for research:

(1) What is the most economic method of teaching specific grammatical constructions or inflexions?

(2) What is it that constitutes linguistic capacity or incapacity? Is the latter remediable and to what extent?

(3) What spelling errors occur most frequently in first and second year French classes?

He also indicates some of the difficulties in modern language investigation.

MUELLER, HEINRICH—*Die Mertnersche Reform-Sprachlernmethode*. Prakt. Psych., 1922, pp. 279-283.

THIS article describes a new method of foreign language teaching that appeared in Germany immediately after the war, the texts for which in three years had run into one hundred editions. Mertner acquired his experience



with prisoners of war, but his system is professedly based on the theories of Ebbinghaus, Wundt, Franke, Gouin and others. It consists, as does the Gouin system, of series of lessons, the content of which is distributed in accordance with well known psychological laws. The distinctive features are to be found in the selection of material. This was based directly on German word-counts of eleven million words, only the most frequent words being used. The foreign language equivalents of these words were then studied for morphological and auditory similarities to the German words, and the degree of similarity determined the total amount of drill given to each pair of words. The new words are interspersed in contexts, approximately three-fourths of which are already known. Mueller considers that the method will not secure adequate drill on pronunciation, and that it requires a high degree of persistence and effort for its operation.

—The method resembles West's, as discussed in the latter's *Bilingualism*, Calcutta, 1926 (see under Bilingualism).

STROEBE, L. L.—*The Use of Pictures as Illustrative Material in Modern Language Teaching*. Educ., 1922-23, pp. 363-372.

URGES that it is better to concentrate one's efforts and one's money at first on getting together a good collection of pictures rather than slides.

Suggests that the first pictures should depict the life of the peasant, and life in medieval cities.

Throughout the article there are many suggestions as to photographs, reproductions of paintings, illustrated books, sets of pictures, etc., that may be purchased cheaply for class-room use.

WARSHAW, J.—*What Ails Beginners?* *Hisp.*, 1922, pp. 311-324.

REPORTS the results of a questionnaire to first year students of Spanish. Verbs offered most difficulty. Most students found the lessons too long. As all students had had some foreign language for at least a year, Latin predominating, the writer is led to ask why there is no apparent transfer from the grammar of one language to that of another. Students in scientific courses object to the deductive methods of language teaching. For slow students composition must be materially reduced.

*Cinematograph Films and Language Teaching.* Editorial in *Mod. Lang.*, 1923, pp. 51-52.

EDITORIAL comments, favourable in character, on experimental work conducted in France in the National Dumb and Deaf Institute tending to show the utility of the cinema film as an aid to the teaching of language.

PATTERSON, A. S.—*A Correlation of Aims and Methods in Modern Language Teaching.* *Mod. Lang. Jour.*, 1923, pp. 385-402.

THE mastery of a foreign language cannot be accomplished in the school room by any method, however ideal, under the conditions imposed to-day. Much more can be achieved, however, if certain fundamental facts are recognized. The word is not the unit of a language, and the pupil should be trained to listen, to read and to translate in thought-groups. Idioms must be memorized and treated as integral units. Phonetics and phonetic symbols are recommended by the author, but he asserts that the capacity to speak the foreign language in the sense of being able to express one's thoughts readily and idiomatically on a wide variety of subjects is unattainable in the classroom.

STOCKER, C.—*Teaching French Through Folk Songs*.  
Mod. Lang. Jour., 1923, pp. 285-288.

FAULTS of pronunciation sometimes overlooked in speech become more apparent in song. The nasal quality inherent in most American voices, and harsh throaty tones, may be overcome through singing.

This article describes the French songs to be used in class along with the method of developing the vocabulary acquired in these songs.

AWTRY, H.—*Too Much Method*. Mod. Lang., 1924, pp. 176-180.

WITHIN the last 15 years the teaching of languages has had encumbrances thrust upon it sufficient in number alone to have choked any other subject in the school curriculum out of existence. What with phonetics, direct method, French newspapers, gramophone and wireless, it is marvellous how any real teaching is achieved at all.

Grammar and syntax, which provide the substantial working basis, are being more and more completely overshadowed by phonetics and direct method. Phonetics is a science apart. The importance of pronunciation is a mere nothing compared with grammar and syntax. Even a parrot can attain to a certain proficiency in French accent. What is needed is plenty of grammar, plenty of reading (not reading with pronunciation as an end; a tolerable accent is quite sufficient) and, above all, plenty of verb practice.

BOBBITT, F.—*How to Make a Curriculum*. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin, 1924. 292 pp. \$1.80.

CHAPTER XVII is devoted to the way in which modern languages function directly and indirectly in the life of the community. A few points only can be repeated here:

4. One should read a foreign language in the same way as one's mother tongue, and for about the same purposes.

5. The basic experience in learning to read a modern language is to read it abundantly. All else should be reduced to a minimum.

6. Reading should begin in the very beginning of the study, and it should be fairly abundant by the end of the first semester.

7. Translation serves no sufficient purpose,—after a beginning has been made. It should be reduced to a minimum in the first year, and omitted thereafter.

9. A genuine reading ability demands that students read ten or twenty times as many pages per year as are now ordinarily covered in the usual type of school.

13. After the start has been made, a language is to be mastered in ways and under conditions in which it is to be used after school days are over.

16. A forced study of language will not result properly in attaining any of the objectives. If not mastered on the play-level, for the joy of the experience and of the achievement, it will not be mastered in any profitable way.

19. If after proper opportunities and stimulations have been provided and a proper start has been made, a pupil has not sufficient interest in a language to exert himself in its mastery without much help from the teacher, then he should at once discontinue the study.

22. Except as a language functions during the learning, and except as there is pupil-expectation that it will continue to function after the learning, the learning process will be so anaemic as not to be worth while.

23. One who is learning or using a modern foreign language should do a portion of his reading of history, science, literature, current news, etc., in that language.

25. In beginning a foreign language for reading pur-



poses, the oral element should be sufficient to develop pronunciation habits and the necessary auditory-articulatory imagery.

31. A knowledge of the life and thought of foreign nations—many foreign nations—is now so important that we cannot afford to be satisfied with the usual amount and character of reading in one foreign language.

CHURCHMAN, PHILIP.—*Readers, Writers and Oralists. A Problem in Specialization.* Mod. Lang. Jour., 1924, pp. 345-351.

PROPOSES a minimum common course for first year students, and alternative supplementary courses in oral work, reading or composition. As a matter of fact many students now pass composite courses by becoming specially efficient in one form of language learning.

HANDSCHIN, C. H.—*Methods of Teaching Modern Languages.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, World Book Co., 1924. 479 pp. \$2.40.

CONTENTS: Introductory; The Scientific Foundations of Modern Languages; Values and Methods; Skill, Discipline, and Enjoyment; Pronunciation; Associating Symbols and Meanings; Oral Work; Reading; Writing; Grammar; Realia; Teaching Literature; Individual Differences, and Supervised Study; Reviews, Tests, and Examinations; Special Problems; Problems of Administration; Teacher-Training; Bibliography of Methods; Resolutions and Recommendations of Modern Language Teachers; Syllabi of Four-Year Courses.

An indispensable manual for every teacher, more especially if he is interested in the direct method.

MORENO-LACALLE, J.—*The Review Lesson in Language Teaching.* Mod. Lang. Jour., 1924, pp. 11-23.

ARGUES that greater use should be made of the review lesson. Review does not mean drill but the placing of known facts in new relationships.

PALMER, H. E.—*A Grammar of Spoken English, on a Strictly Phonetic Basis*. Cambridge, Heffer, 1924. xxxvi + 293 pp. \$3.15.

INTENDED to be used chiefly by foreign adult students of English. The process by which we succeed in forming original sentences in a foreign language consists in making analogous sentences which have been (consciously or unconsciously) memorized at some previous time. From *If I'd seen him yesterday*, can be formed *If he'd met her last week, etc.* Palmer has published *Substitution Tables* (Heffer) to take advantage of this process.<sup>1</sup> According to the author, the chief function of a grammar-book is to furnish the student with a selection of categories or patterns which will enable him to perform the greatest number of useful substitutions. According to old linguistic methods, original sentences were built up synthetically by piecing together the units of which they are composed. What usually resulted was a sort of foreign caricature of some sentence of our own language.

SPARKMAN, C. F.—*Rhythmic Sense Groups as a Unit*. *Hisp.*, 1924, pp. 345-359.

THE writer implies that continuous reading matter is made up of a sequence of rhythmic sense groups, somewhat analogous to the eye-span in silent reading, and urges the use of these groups in learning a language. The name is suggestive of the unit, for "sense" means that the groups have a definite meaning, and "rhythmic" implies that it has a symmetrical movement of utterance

<sup>1</sup>See page 136.

and is marked by a certain quantity and recurring stress. This group is not necessarily divided off by punctuation marks. It is not the so-called breath-group, for we usually include two or more such groups in one breath effort. The group is limited by an initial and a final pause and pronounced as an uninterrupted succession of syllables. The words are not recognized as such, but syllables are clearly marked off. The number of syllables composing it seem never to exceed 8 and they usually range from 4 to 8.

It is maintained that the sense unit is a psychological phenomenon, and that it has numerous pedagogical advantages: it saves time, because the group can be retained as easily as the word; it assists the memory because the unit of work is also the unit of use; it is conducive to correct pronunciation because the words are linked together as they are naturally spoken; it dispenses with preliminary grammatical training; it facilitates the mastery of inflections, word order and idioms; and it makes conversation possible from the very outset.

WARSHAW, J.—*Automatic Reactions in Practical Foreign Language Work*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1924, pp. 151-158.

THE article is concerned with some phases of the problem of learning to speak a foreign language. Speech habits are formed slowly and by much repetition. It is necessary to select those words and principles that are essential and automatize them.

BATEMAN, G. C.—*Aids to Modern Language Teaching, Organization and Method in Schools*. London, Constable, 1925. 68 pp. 65 cents.

BATEMAN'S system is based upon the oral method, and

his booklet shows the teacher actually at work upon his class. His aim is to keep all pupils active in co-operative work and to get pupils into correct habits of work, not allowing them to make mistakes which have to be corrected. The reading in the early stages should be done after the teacher in breath-groups. After the reading, the teacher undertakes the explanation, either by means of an action (in the early stages) or by means of synonyms or contraries. As for questions they should be "rapid and natural and darted at the pupils all over the room". Mechanical conversation is taught in Palmer's way (*The Oral Method of Teaching Languages*, q.v.). There are useful suggestions on organized vocabulary for active reproduction, and other matters. After the first two years' course, the Larousse dictionary plays an important part in the work. The pupils have finished with elementary text books (Constable's *Organized French Readers*), and now read literature. As for translation (English-French), work of this kind should be done in the year before examination in which such translation is required. Finally, five model lessons are outlined, in which the training of the ear (dictation, gramophone records, etc.) and the voice are stressed.

BOEK UND GRUBER—*Kurzgefaszte Schul-grammatik der englischen Sprache*. Berlin, Weidmann, 1925. 124 pp.  
*Elementarbuch der englischen Sprache*, *ibid*.

THESE works and others belonging to the series known as the "Methodischer Lehrgang der englischen Sprache", are edited by Dubislav, Boek and Gruber.

The grammar presents progressively the essentials without thought of rules for translation, for which moreover there are no exercises. Translation from German into English is provided for only in the Reader, and is



based on the selections. Phonetic script is used. Pupils are encouraged to memorize the nursery rhymes and proverbs, which are selected and arranged to provide drill in pronunciation. The aims of these books (prescribed by a Prussian ministerial decree of 1924) are correct pronunciation and the development of a language feeling before translation is attempted.

BOND, O. F.—*The Organization and Use of a Departmental Reading Collection in the Modern Languages*.  
Mod. Lang. Jour., 1925, pp. 483-488.

FROM the outset the student's reading must be of two types, intensive or analytical, and extensive, where the objective may be summarized as "losing one's self in the language", with the thought content in the focus of attention, and without conscious heed to any linguistic phenomena.

In its organization and use of this extensive reading feature the modern language department of the Junior College of the University of Chicago experimented in 1923-24 with a departmental reading collection with highly satisfactory results.

The installation and the operating methods were necessarily simple. Two hundred and fifty-six works in French, Spanish and German were borrowed from existing general libraries. A student was allowed one book at a time. Of the 256 separate works shelved, 40 titles were not called for. 216 titles entered into circulation. For the 216 books circulated, the evidence of the charging cards indicates 958 calls during the year, or 45 calls per book circulated. The largest demands were for good literature with an aesthetic appeal. P. 486 presents the reading list used.

The instructors consciously built up a demand. New

arrivals for the shelves were taken into the class-room and presented, with a brief statement as to author, value and special appeal. The time thus consumed rarely exceeded five minutes, and when the statement was made in the foreign language, a double service was rendered the student. As a stimulus and guide to organized reading, reading lists for the French novel, drama and short-story were arranged and distributed in mimeographed form to the students.

This trial installation of a departmental reading collection and library service has fully justified the following conclusions:

1. It is advisable to make accessible to the first-year modern language student at the college level a carefully chosen reading collection of from 800 to 1000 volumes for French, Spanish and German.

2. The ideal housing of such a collection is a centrally located reading-room equipped with wall cases or open shelves, bulletin-board, wall maps, etc.

3. The reading collection should be open to the student over a wide range of hours. The conditions of withdrawal and retention should be made as generous as possible, etc.

CHURCHMAN, P. H.—*Courses for Beginners*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1925, pp. 207-225.

ABILITY to read a foreign language (presumably silently) should be the first aim of language learning, to be followed in order by aural interpretation, written composition and oral drill. Aural training, it is asserted, facilitates training in word recognition. Oral and written compositions by the pupil should not be required until much of the training in visual-recognition of words has been given.

DESFEUILLES, P. & LE GAL, E.—*Echt Französisch sprechen! Dialogues à l'usage des étrangers de langue germanique pour corriger leurs fautes de français.* Paris, Delagrave, 1925. 79 pp. 40 cents.

DIALOGUES in familiar and very idiomatic French, grouped about subjects like: Départ et voyage, A la gare, Entre hommes d'affaires, Un déjeuner, En visite, Les vieux livres, Les journaux et les journalistes, La politique, etc.

DE VALETTE, MARC.—*La Méthode Directe pour l'enseignement des langues vivantes à l'aide des tableaux auxiliaires.* Paris, Perche, (Premier livre, 11e ed., 1925). \$1.70.

THIS series, which includes English, French, German, Italian, Spanish, is excellent for teachers qualified to use the direct method. The lessons are based on the experience of pupils and on pictures. Various devices, questions and the completion type of sentences, are used for enforcing active cooperation on the part of pupils. But even in an elementary work it ought to be possible to make the work more real than in such sentences as, "Les parisiens, peuvent-ils parler français?"

The *premier livre* uses only the present tense. The *deuxième* is less concerned with the acquisition of new vocabulary than with practice in the verb in all persons, tenses, moods—"le verbe est l'âme du langage".

FREY, M., ET GUENOT, H.—*Manuel de Langue et de style français.* Paris, Masson, 1925, 1926 (2e ed.). x + 272 pp. 95 cents.

AN adaptation for class-room use of Brunot's *La Pensée et la langue*. There is a complementary volume of exercises for practice in grammar, vocabulary, "explication de textes" and composition (see next item).

Brunot's method represents a broader interpretation of grammatical relations than the Greco-Latin classification under eight parts of speech. The new point of view is well illustrated under chapter XI of the manual: *la caractérisation*, where eight types of characterization (modifiers) are given: tone of voice (*une toilette d'un goût* —exquis ou détestable); choice of words (including suffixes, as *maisonnette*); isolated words, nouns, adjectives, participles, adverbs, (*marcher rapidement*, *un chapeau abritant du soleil*); words or groups of words connected by prepositions, (*un buffet de noyer*, *marcher à pas comptés*); words or groups not combined (*une suisse de service*, *guimpe blanche et collier d'argent*); conjunctive propositions (*un chapeau qui abrite du soleil*); participles or gerunds (*ils marchaient en chantant*); "propositions conjonctionnelles" (*il est parti, sans que personne s'en soit aperçu*); even demonstratives, possessives and articles can characterize (*votre Monsieur Trissolin*).—The method is being given a trial in at least one Canadian university.

FREY, M., ET GUENOT, H.—*Exercices de langue et de style français*. Paris, Masson, 1925, 1926 (2e ed.). 476 pp. \$1.30.

THE exercises are based on selections, and require the pupil to underline grammatical phenomena and stylistic characteristics, to write compositions illustrating them or based on models, and to do "exercices d'explication de textes". This is an excellent text-book that can probably be used here only in advanced conversation classes. The happy combination of grammar, style, and literary appreciation makes it especially commendable (see preceding item).



HAGBOLDT, P.—*How to Study Modern Languages in College*. University of Chicago Press, 1925. 24 pp. 30 cents.

LANGUAGE consists of sounds. Sounds combined form words containing concepts; words combined form sentences embodying thoughts. Sound is the fundamental element in all language: it should be mastered first.

Early reading should be of well-known material,—legends, fairy tales, etc. The advantages of using such material are: the content is known, even though the form is unknown; attention can be directed to the idiom rather than to the story.

For those who are lacking in word memory, the author suggests: practise the new word repeatedly aloud; write it, and pronounce it while writing; note exact meaning and function of word; spell the word; memorize it in connection with other words, *e.g.* words of the same derivation, or relating to the same topic (*cf.* Pelmanism).

HAGBOLDT, P.—*Experimenting with First Year College German*. *Mod. Lang. Jour.*, 1925, pp. 293-305.

STUDENTS entering first year German in the Junior College of the University of Chicago, without exception, want to acquire the ability to understand spoken German; many want to learn to speak it; only a few to be able to write it. The method used to achieve these ends is reading, both intensive and extensive. Reading matter is very easy at first, much of its content being already familiar in English. Emphasis is placed on rapid reading. The article enumerates principles governing such reading. This training is paralleled after a few weeks by drill on paradigms, details of which are given.

Students are required to present weekly summaries of, and quotations from, the assigned material.

HAGBOLDT, P.—*How to Study Modern Languages in High School*. Univ. of Chicago Press, 1925. 31 pp. 30 cents.

SUGGESTIONS for effective study—largely non-controversial principles, written for the pupil. A little psychology and a lot of common sense. The unit of speech is the group of words that convey a thought. A word is a very relative thing; it may change (1) in meaning, (2) in function,—which it does in a sentence, (3) in form (ending), (4) in position in a sentence. Poor pronunciation is usually due to the carrying over of sounds from one language to another. Every foreigner mispronounces words, but does so in a way peculiar to his own nationality. One may be able to pronounce individual words with absolute accuracy and yet not be able to say fluently a thought unit containing a sequence of words,—intonation, and the ability to make elisions may not have been acquired. Remember grammatical facts by memorizing sentences and phrases containing them.

HOUGHTON, F.—*An Elaboration of Gouin's Method*. Educational Review, 1925, pp. 256-259.

As a result of Gouin's lessons, every pupil should become able to perform every act in the theme, at the same time saying the sentence which describes it. This method has both dangers and limitations:

(1) The tendency to use too many new words in a theme.

(2) The lack of opportunity to apply new words once learned.

(3) In dramatizing an act the danger that a wrong impression may be received by the pupils. The successful teaching of a theme depends upon the certainty that the

act and its name be coupled directly and correctly in the minds of the pupils.

(4) In Gouin's method, the pupil must receive his impression through the ear and he must practise its use in speech. In this, Gouin overlooked the fact that an impression received only through the ear can easily be influenced by impressions received through the eye and reinforced by the hand.

In the latest development of the method, not only must the pupil hear the sentence which describes some act, but he must read this sentence orally for practice in speech, and also silently to check his understanding of it.

In present practice the teaching of a theme after the Gouin method is divided into 6 units. Of these, the first has to do with the development of the theme following exactly the procedure prescribed by Gouin. In the second the pupils see the theme written as it is being demonstrated, and read it. In the third unit the theme is changed from the first personal form to the second and third persons. In the fourth unit each sentence of the theme is written in the imperative form and the pupils are required to perform the acts indicated. The fifth unit comprises the writing of the entire theme in all its forms. The sixth unit requires the reading of the sentences of the theme, or of similar sentences, from some text-book.

ROUSE, W. H. D., and APPLETON, R. B.—*Latin on the Direct Method*. University of London Press, 1925. 226 pp. \$2.00.

A DESCRIPTION of the oral method for teaching Latin in the Perse school with a statement of the principles involved and favourable arguments for the use of the direct or oral method. Pupils are taught to speak Latin not as

an end but as a means, which is to read classical literature. Questions and answers are based on class-room activities, stories, pictures and classical authors. Work is made pleasant; an important point when it is remembered that in the English "public" school, the study of Latin is one of the highest attainments in intellectual matters. "To leave school" as the authors say, "hating everything intellectual through memories of meaningless drudgery is a great misfortune." A summary of the course is given by years.

A modern language teacher is struck by the limited range of the conversation, and on the other hand by the mass of classical texts read. There is no compromising with good Latinity, as the pupils are prepared for the traditional English university examinations in which translation plays an important part. The reformed Latin pronunciation is used, the editors referring in particular to the pronunciation of *v*, a sound, by the way, preserved in Spanish, with the same confusion as in Latin between "b" and "v". The most serious mistakes (from the standpoint of the modern language teacher) are not referred to: mispronunciation of "r", failure to pronounce double consonants (a characteristic preserved in Italian), bad syllabification, and equally bad diphthongization. In these matters the modern language teacher could co-operate usefully with his classical colleagues.

SCHOLTKOWSKA, GITA.—*Experimentelle Beiträge zur Frage der direkten und der indirekten Methode im Neusprachlichen Unterricht*. Ztsch. f. Angew. Psych., 1925, pp. 65-87.

(THE following notes are based on an extensive review by M. Schorn in the *Ztsch. f. Paed. Psych.*, 1925, pp. 264-268). An investigation to determine the best method for



acquisition of a vocabulary by a class of beginners. Subjects were thirty children, 12 or 13 years of age, and the results can be held to be applicable only to children. The material used was an artificial language, in which there were no articles, no inflexions of nouns, and in which verbs were used only in the third person singular. The direct method used by the author may be understood from the following instructions: "I will tell you a word in the foreign language and show you at the same time the object it means. Repeat the word and look at the object I show you. You should repeat each word every time I say it. When several words have been learned we shall make up a sentence. Notice also the movements that I make with the objects or with this pencil, and repeat what I say." For the indirect method the instructions were: "I shall tell you a word in the foreign language and give immediately the corresponding word in our own language. Repeat both the foreign and the German words. You should repeat each word every time I say it. When some words have been learned we shall make up a sentence." Further steps in the procedure follow the principles laid down by modern language authorities. Five practice lessons were given. Learning was tested at the end of each lesson; for vocabulary and ability to form phrases and sentences at the beginning of each class from the second lesson to the end; the total material was tested at the end of the fifth lesson, and four weeks later a test of retention was given, measuring vocabulary, free formation of short sentences and formation of phrases. Testing methods were adapted to the learning methods. No one method showed a clear superiority for all types of material. Retention of concrete nouns, and learning for immediate recall of prepositions and verbs was better with the direct method, but the learning of nouns in adverbial combina-

tions ("on the table"), delayed retention of prepositions and verbs; and free formation of new sentences show results that favour the indirect method. Dr. Scholtkowska suggests, but without offering any experimental evidence in support, that the deficiencies of the direct method could be made up by more intensive drill. Dr. Schorn points out that the direct method requires a great deal of drill, and considers that this constitutes such a disadvantage as to make the direct method acceptable only in the beginning of foreign language teaching.

KIRKMAN, F. B.—*First Principles of the Direct Method*. Mod. Lang., 1925, pp. 11-14, 50-56, 78-81, 136-141, 163-173.

A DETAILED, balanced and illuminating analysis of the principles of the direct method, and its application in class-room procedure. The chief principles are: (1) direct association between a foreign word or word group and its meaning. Translation is one of the methods of *teaching meaning*, but should be avoided in *practising the use of vocabulary*; (2) maximum use of foreign language consistent with clear comprehension; (3) all language learning is habit-formation; to form a habit there must be frequent motivated repetition of the same act, with properly distributed reviews or re-practices; (4) grammar must be taught. The essential difference between the direct and indirect methods of grammar teaching is that the latter makes a fetish of the rule, and neglects practice, the former stresses practice and uses the rule solely as a guide to practice. There are three ways of making the meanings of a vocabulary clear: (a) translation, the danger in which is that there may be a fixation of equivalent symbols without learning of meaning, (b) association with object, picture or action, which is interesting and

of value to those who have strong visual imagery, (c) explanation in the foreign tongue, which allows for motivated review. Systematic instruction in foreign sounds must precede reading. Good pronunciation involves three things: (a) ability to pronounce specific foreign sounds that do not exist in English, (b) correct stress or accentuation, (c) correct intonation. It is well established that the difficult sounds should be carefully distributed over a course of lessons, and that foreign sounds should be taught before the corresponding written representation of them is seen. There is no experimental evidence as to when and in what form written words should be introduced. If the ordinary spelling is seen before the foreign sound is learned, it tends to suggest the sounds associated with this pattern of letters in the mother tongue. Following the course in pronunciation should come thorough and systematic instruction in grammar. For the upper years three more or less interrelated alternatives may be chosen—linguistic, literary and translation. One source of weakness in translation is evidenced in written examinations—few students realize the need for a command of English, few appreciate that translating is an art of phrasing.

MOORE, H. E.—*Modernism in Language Teaching*. Cambridge, W. Heffer and Sons, 1925. 166 pp. \$1.15.

IN theory, the direct method is generally adopted and administratively approved; in fact, the stress laid in state examinations on translation stultifies any attempt at a thorough-going direct method. Literature is of great value as a means of extending a conversational knowledge of the language, but is not a substitute for it. Conscious phonetic analysis is necessary, under school conditions, if speech sounds are to become habitually accurate.

*Richtlinien für die Lehrpläne der höheren Schulen Preussens.* Berlin, Weidmann, 1927. (Neue Ausgabe besorgt von H. Richert; 1st ed. 1925). 583 pp. \$1.95.

For modern languages (pp. 214-231), there are sections devoted to aims (on a foundation of a comprehensive and solid knowledge of the language to introduce the pupil through the printed page,—“das Schriftum”—, to the cultural and spiritual life of foreign peoples; but especially by comparisons with native characteristics to deepen his understanding of the peculiarities of his own people). Useful directions are given on methods: pronunciation (“Nur unermüdliches Vorsprechen seitens des Lehrers, der auch sein eigenes Ohr von Zeit zu Zeit wieder schulen musz,—Auslandsreisen, Sprechplatten u.a.—, und sorgsam überwachtes Nachsprechen durch die Schüler”); grammar (“nicht, wie vielfach bisher, Übersetzungsregeln . . . ; grammatische Erkenntnis ist grundsätzlich induktiv”),—with practical suggestions for developing an interest in grammar through comparative, historical and psychological observations; oral and written work; vocabulary drill; reading (“Die Lektüre steht im Mittelpunkt des neusprachlichen Unterrichts . . . Es ist grundsätzlich zu erstreben, dass bei der Lektüre möglichst die fremde Sprache gebraucht werde, doch darf diese nicht auf Kosten der Klarheit und gedanklichen Ausschöpfung bevorzugt werden . . . Die Übertragung einzelner Stellen in gutes Deutsch, die den Stilcharakter der fremden Sprache im Unterschied von dem der eigenen besonders scharf erkennen lässt, wird auf allen Stufen, und zwar nicht zu selten, in der Klasse gemeinsam erarbeitet oder als Aufgabe gestellt werden müssen”); Philosophische Vertiefung; Kunstbetrachtung; Staatsbürgerliche Erziehung; Konzentration—by this word, which occurs frequently in modern German pedagogic literature, is meant “Arbeits-



gemeinschaft mit andern Fächern",—concentration on German education ("Bildung"), each subject making its contribution to produce the "echten Deutschen", all "Kulturkunde" contributing to "Deutschkunde"—as a contribution to the study of German life, customs, history and literature, *e.g.* for Germanisches Volkstum: Grundlagen der englischen Verfassung und Gesellschaftsordnung, germanische Bestandteile der englischen und französischen Sprache, germanische Volksdichtung (englische Balladen) . . .

The *Richtlinien* represent a new orientation and system, which as such deserve fuller consideration than can be devoted to their general aspects here. For a good analysis see E. Bruhn in *Neue Jahrbücher für Wissenschaft und Jugendbildung*, 1925, pp. 652-671, and, in the same periodical, E. Schön, *Probleme der französischen Kulturkunde in der höheren Schule*, pp. 245-258, (not a review, but the application of similar principles), W. Hübner, *Welche Aufgaben stellt die Schulreform dem Neusprachlichen Unterricht*, *ibid.*, pp. 87-101. (See also under Faser and Voretzsch, below).

WILLIAMS, E. B.—*The Teaching of Scientific French, German and Spanish in the Engineering Schools of the United States*. *Mod. Lang. Jour.*, 1925, pp. 237-243.

A QUESTIONNAIRE of eight items was sent out with the object of making a survey of this matter. The data are tabulated in the article.

Scientific French is offered in about two-fifths of the schools and scientific German in about three-fifths. Scientific Spanish is nowhere required for a degree. The prerequisite for these scientific courses is usually two years of high school or one year of college preparation in

the language in question. The courses are offered from one to five hours a week for a school year.

In very few institutions is there any study of literature or of composition. Most schools are favourable to modern languages, but there is a dearth of qualified teachers on their staffs.

BRIGGS, T. H.—*Curriculum Problems*. New York, Macmillan, 1926. ix + 138 pp. 95 cents.

CHAPTER I is concerned with some 27 questions: 1. What are the desired ends of education? 2. To what extent is it desired that education shall modify the character and actions of future citizens? 3. For which of the approved ends is the public school responsible? etc.

Seldom is opposition made by the public to the inclusion or retention in the curriculum of either the so-called tool-subjects or of the cultural subjects like modern languages, or of subjects like mathematics, in which facts are obvious or demonstrable. But trouble is possible even here. French may be so taught as to affect the attitudes of youth toward the people of France, and frequently "facts" are capable of conflicting interpretations, and their application may cause attitudes and actions different from those common to parents or other citizens. Trouble is inevitable when one group urges teaching that results in ideals, attitudes, prejudices or practices that conflict with the *mores* of others, especially with the *mores* that strongly involve the emotions, for example, religion, social relations and property.

In European schools it is a common practice to continue some subjects two or even six years, with one, two or more recitations a week. In fact the secondary schools seldom if ever drop a subject once introduced. Everything taught is continued long and applied frequently

enough to stamp it in. Contrast our one-semester or one-year fragments, our two-year foreign language courses, all dropped after a fair beginning, and to a large extent forgotten because they are not sufficiently overlearned or utilized for the satisfaction of further needs. From one point of view the short units proposed for consideration may be wise in that they afford some training in numerous fields before pupils are eliminated; from others they may be unwise in that they give to these pupils a smattering of the subjects without a mastery. The nature of the material presented largely determines a decision as to which procedure is the wiser.

Which gives a better degree of permanent mastery, concentration or distribution of time? Measurement should be made of the results, both immediate and after various lapses of time, from, say, 200 hours devoted to a subject in one year and from the same amount of time distributed over two or more years. Some teachers cite the laws of distribution of time for the effectiveness of retention, while others complain of the loss due to "warming up" after the lapse of three or four days.

In some schools we find subjects prescribed that are in others elective or not offered at all. The decision as to requirements should be based on the soundest composite judgment of what are the common necessities in education. For example, is the ability to read either English or a foreign language an essential in the education of youth? If so, reading at what level of difficulty? With what degree of comprehension? At what rate? This problem would be better stated in the questions: What are the bases of deciding which units of instruction should be required and which elective, and who shall be permitted to elect any given course? On the answers to these questions working decisions can be made.

Chapter II. discusses four major questions: 1. From what sources do emotionalized attitudes come? 2. What are desirable emotionalized attitudes? 3. Which are the concern of the school? 4. How may they be created? developed? modified? and directed toward beneficent action?

Is it possible for scientists in education to ascertain the key to what means will produce the best results in pupils of differing intelligence, maturity, temperament and previous training? If so, a tremendous field for practical work lies fallow and inviting.

FASER, L. F.—*Lehrverfahren und Lehraufgaben für Französisch und Englisch: Wege zur Durchführung der Richtlinien*. Marburg, Elwert, 1926. xiv + 112 pp. \$1.70.

As the title indicates, this is an interpretation of the *Richtlinien* and a guide to its application. There are, among other things, programmes of study, examples of dialogues on grammar and reading texts, and other valuable discussions and suggestions. One interesting feature is an attempt to estimate by a count of subordinate clauses, long sentences, and style, the relative difficulty of texts. The author not knowing of word counts is unable to measure lexicographical difficulties, which he estimates subjectively, indicating the result by plus or minus signs. The works analysed are readers, except the following: Lavissee, 69; *Colomba*, 88 +; *Mlle. de la Seiglière*, 42 +; Taine, 128 —.

FITZGERALD, T. A.—*The Second Year Problem*. Hisp., 1926, pp. 13-22.

A LARGE amount of what is learned during a first year course in a modern language is lost during the summer vacation. The loss is relatively less in successive years.



Much time is wasted in the second year because of poor methods and because students of very different degrees of achievement are grouped together. Suggests voluntary classification into three groups, and hopes that tests will be available shortly to aid in classification.

GREEN, T. C.—*Some Limitations of the Direct Method*.  
Mod. Lang., 1926, pp. 141-145.

GREEN declares himself an enthusiastic supporter of the direct method under, and only under, the following conditions: classes containing a maximum of 10 pupils who are learning French because they want to; teachers who have resided long enough in France to have a fluent command of the language and some insight into French ways of thinking; readers compiled to indicate that some French has been written since 1890; and lastly an examination which will be half oral and half written. Until these are available he will be a "mixed methodist".

ROWLAND, D.—*The Use of Proverbs in Beginners' Classes in the Modern Languages*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1926, pp. 89-91.

THE use of proverbs in the class-room is considerably less common at the present moment than in former years of modern language teaching. But, 1. Proverbs stick in the mind. 2. They build up vocabulary. 3. They illustrate admirably the phraseology and idiomatic expressions of the foreign tongue. 4. Proverbs contribute gradually to a surer feeling for the foreign tongue. 5. Proverbs in the class-room consume very little time.—A list of available works dealing with proverbs is given.

STROHMEYER, H. — *Das Neusprachliche Gymnasium*.  
Braunschweig, Westermann, 1926. 270 pp. \$1.60.

AN interpretation of the "Neuordnung des preuszischen

höheren Schulwesen, Denkschrift des Preussischen Ministeriums für Wissenschaft, Kunst und Volksbildung" (1924)—establishing the modern language gymnasium in place of the "Reform-Realgymnasium"—and the "Richtlinien für die Lehrpläne der höheren Schulen Preussens". There is much of interest in this study on aims, methods, and text-books. The aim is to give the pupils of 18 or 19 years of age, after a study of one language for nine years and a second for six, a knowledge of the civilization of the foreign peoples whose languages are studied, as also to develop a consciousness of "Deutschtum"—a point that receives special stress in German post-war educational theory and practice. In the study of foreign languages correct pronunciation is emphasized. In conversational work, the object should be to teach the pupil to converse with educated foreigners. Class-room material is provided by the texts read, and topics taken from ordinary daily life (house, family, school, city, railway, commerce, etc.) yield to discussions on literature, art, aesthetics, science and similar subjects. In the teaching of grammar, the author likewise marks a reaction from the extreme attitude of the "reform", without going to the opposite extreme of former teachers who imitated the methods of the Latin class-room and made grammar the sole objective.—In the analysis of national characteristics one is struck by the fondness of Germans for generalisation in such matters, an interesting but old-fashioned and unscientific practice.

*The Education of the Adolescent,—Board of Education Report.* London, H. M. Stationery Office, 1926.  
xxiv + 339 pp. 2s.

THIS report deals with the organization, objective and curriculum of courses of study suitable for children who

will remain in full-time attendance at schools, other than secondary schools, up to the age of 15. Post-primary schools correspond closely to our junior high schools but with vocational intent. From the section devoted to moderns, the following passages may be quoted:—  
*“Reasons for suggesting the inclusion of a modern foreign language in the courses of study for post-primary schools.* In the first place a foreign language is an excellent educational subject, since it brings into play and stimulates the mental activities of the pupils and widens their outlook and interests as citizens of the world. From another aspect, it affords a good means to literary culture, through the study of works of great literature, and thus to a truly liberal education. Further, it may be of practical use in certain industries and occupations, and helps to equip the pupils for the work of earning their livelihood. It has thus at once a disciplinary, a literary and a practical value.

The choice of the foreign language to be learnt must depend to a great extent on the locality in which the school is situated and on the supply of teachers. French, or Spanish, or German, are already being taught in most secondary schools and in certain central schools, while French is taught in a few elementary schools which are attempting advanced work. It is possible that in post-primary schools in certain districts a European language, other than the three named above, might sometimes find a place. . .

Modern methods of teaching living languages make great demands on the teacher, who is now expected to train his pupils to use the language for purposes of conversation and intercourse from the earliest stages. At the present time, the supply of teachers qualified to give such instruction is limited. The supply from universities is to a great extent absorbed by the secondary schools. . .

As the whole course lasts only three or at the most four years, we consider that it is desirable that 5 periods a week should be assigned to the study of the modern language. In any case we regard 4 periods a week as the minimum. Songs, recitations, and games in the foreign language should form an integral part of the teaching, and if they are judiciously used should prevent any lesson from becoming tedious, and reconcile the pupil to the really hard work of acquiring a mastery of the grammar, structure and vocabulary of the foreign language. To take French as an example, teachers of that language should aim at making their pupils able:—(1) to pronounce French in a way not displeasing to their hearers; (2) to understand spoken French; (3) to speak intelligently on subjects within the range of their experience; (4) to understand the meaning of the printed language; (5) to write freely if not accurately in French; (6) to realize that a knowledge of French will give them the key to a famous literature.

Though the preliminary training should be mainly oral, increasing accuracy can be obtained by frequent practice in such written work as dictation, reproduction, and answers in French to questions set in French.

A grammar, preferably in French, should be used, but at first it should be employed mainly for reference. French should be spoken during the lesson as a rule, if not exclusively, by both teacher and pupils. Phrases and vocabulary in everyday use should be made familiar by frequent practice both orally and on paper. Composition exercises should be largely based on oral work and on the texts read in school. These aims and this method can of course be modified to suit the teacher's gifts and the results of his or her experience with children of the age and mental attainments common in these schools, but



they will be a guide at starting and, though suggested for French, apply with little alteration to the teaching of any modern foreign language.

Wherever possible, the teaching of the modern language should be carried on in one particular room, which should contain a collection of maps, pictures, postcards, foreign calendars, artistic advertisements, etc., calculated to interest the pupil in the new language and people. The room should also contain a small lending library containing works which would appeal not only to the more advanced pupil, but also to the beginner. For example, it should contain books used by young French, Spanish, or German children. It would also be desirable, if possible, to take a newspaper, or illustrated periodical, in the foreign language; and in schools where there is a slight industrial, commercial or agricultural bias, it might be advisable to subscribe to a foreign periodical, bearing in some way on the special bias, which would appeal to boys and girls with practical tastes, who would be less likely to be attracted by purely literary works. The class-room might also contain a gramophone, with a set of suitable records of passages in prose and poetry in the foreign language. Such records can be used to advantage in connection with dictation lessons and with the teaching of pronunciation and rhythm."

VORETZSCH, K.—*Philologie und Kulturkunde im Neusprachlichen Unterricht*. Halle, Niemeyer, 1926. 40 pp. 50 cents.

ONE of the most scholarly pronouncements on modern language aims and methods—a reconsideration of the problem prompted by the *Richtlinien für die Lehrpläne der höheren Schulen* (1925). Much is of local, polemical interest, and only the points that may have general application can be noted here.

The age, capacities and interests of pupils must be kept in mind. The reform method of the eighties had a sound basis: instruction in living languages should have different aims, and hence different methods from those of dead languages. There must therefore be practice in the use of the language. Stress was laid, in the reform method, on themes dealing with daily life, in preparation for the pupil's sojourn abroad,—familiarity with the vocabulary of the railway, dining-room, theatre, and so on, all intended to make the pupil a "petit Parisien". In reading, *realien* were stressed, at the expense of literature. A reaction has set in and the cry is now for "Kulturkunde",—again to the neglect of grammar, philology and literature. Voretzsch notes that once again more is demanded of moderns than scholarly interest, a position that is difficult to reconcile with the fact that for the majority this is the exclusive and only vital interest. The universities have, however, taken up enthusiastically the new "Kulturkunde",—"die materielle, seelische und geistige Bildung eines Volkes". Voretzsch observes elsewhere a change that has taken place in the universities, which now too deal with the practical side of languages, and contemporary life and literature, to the neglect of scientific philological studies which are the university's province as compared with the "Bildung" provided for in the schools. Obviously, "Kulturkunde" is too comprehensive for the schools. The essentials must therefore be selected. Voretzsch would concentrate on the most accessible manifestations, a nation's literature, leaving aside as serving a lesser purpose in the schools, technical, sociological, commercial, scientific considerations, as well as contemporary problems. The "âme française", he maintains, can best be studied in the careful analysis of such masterpieces as Chénier's *Adieux à la vie*, etc. In

opposition to the *Richtlinien*, the author maintains that in the foreign languages the aim cannot be so high as in the native tongue, where pupils know the language and background. Voretzsch would be happy if candidates for the advanced state examinations knew all that is demanded of pupils in the Prussian regulations.

CUNNINGHAM, GILBERT F.—*The Principles of the Indirect Method in the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages*. Mod. Lang., 1927, pp. 71-74.

THE English-speaking child should not be forced to think at the level of his French vocabulary in the early years. Regardless of the aim, the pupil will, at first, think in the vernacular, and his early associations will be between a vernacular and non-vernacular word, not between a non-vernacular word and the situation it represents. It is wasteful to depend on the foreign language for explanations of French accidence; only through the vernacular can the child acquire a precise denotation for the foreign word. Ability to think in the foreign language with the intermediary of a vernacular word is a goal, not a method.

DAGGETT, MABEL C.—*Translation from French into English by the A.B.C. Method*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1927, pp. 513-516.

THE fundamental principle in translation is: "Thoughts, not words". The A.B.C. Method of translation is: (A) the French sentence read in French, (B) "Frenchy"-English (word for word), (C) Idiomatic English. Process B should be done outside of class unless called for especially as a means of justifying process C.

HAGBOLDT, P., KAUFMANN, F. W.—*A Modern German Grammar; Minimum Essentials Inductively Presented*.

University of Chicago Press, 1927. xiv + 192 pp.  
\$2.00.

THE special features of this grammar are analysed as follows in the advertisement that appears on the jacket:

1. Scientific structure of lessons, in which analysis and synthesis, induction and deduction, are consistently carried out.

2. The inductive feature of each lesson, through which the student himself is enabled to work out grammatical rules, with the help of his instructor.

3. The clear division of each lesson into two parts: first, a section which offers an introduction to reading; and second, a section which contains abundant material for students with other objectives besides reading.

4. The abundance of direct method practice material which is an integral part of an organic whole.

5. Very interesting reading selections.

6. The reduction of grammar to its minimum essentials.

7. The grammar can be supplemented by further reading selections, corresponding to the progress of the student, in the specially designed readers of this series.

This work represents a new departure in that the pupil re-creates sentences from the German passages, which open the lessons, to illustrate grammatical points, instead of translating sentences prepared for the purpose. Translation is called for occasionally. Only experience in the class-room can determine the success of the experiment, especially as concerns the large number of questions on formal grammar, and the "instructor's help" needed to deduce it.

HEDGCOCK, L. A.—*The Active French Course*. Illustrated.  
University of London Press, 1926, First Year; 1927,



Second Year. Two more volumes are promised.  
\$1.40.

DIRECT method beginners' books, intended to encourage active effort on the part of the pupil, one of the obvious weaknesses of direct method teaching being that the teacher usually does too much and the pupils do too little. Phonetic script is used extensively. The method depends on questions and answers and completion sentences. In the first year the pupil learns how to use the present, past, indefinite and future tenses. The second volume takes him as far as the use of the past definite. In the volume for the third year plenty of reading practice will be provided, the subjunctive will be gradually introduced, and easy stories will be given for reproduction. An excellent series of books prepared by an inspector of schools to the London County Council.

PALMER, H. E.—*Everyday Sentences in Spoken English, with Phonetic Transcription and Intonation Marks (For the Use of Foreign Students), revised and enlarged by F. G. Blandford.* Cambridge, W. Heffer & Sons, 1927. xxvi + 128 pp. 95 cents.

“WHEN the foreign student of English first comes to England he realizes the difference between possessing a theoretical knowledge of the language and possessing the capacity for using the language in everyday speech. He is perhaps able to decipher an English text with tolerable accuracy; he is more or less able to translate into classical English the conventional sentences which form the ‘Exercises’ contained in his ‘English Course’; the range of his vocabulary and the extent of his knowledge of classical grammar are such as have enabled him to gain sufficient marks to pass some examination. He may even have paid some attention to the ‘conversa-

tional' side, and have satisfied his teacher as to his capacities for giving oral answers to the set questions contained in his text-book.

But on his arrival in England he finds that his relation towards the language has necessarily changed. English has now become the medium of communication between himself and the people by whom he is surrounded. Unless he can express his wants, his wants will not be attended to. If he is not able to communicate readily and intelligibly with the policeman, the shopkeeper, the landlady, and his English acquaintances, he will find himself involved in misunderstandings and at cross purposes with the people who constitute his environment.

He will find that his pronunciation differs so much from that of native speakers that there may be mutual unintelligibility. The English sentences that he constructs so ingeniously and laboriously may result in stares of wonderment; the English sentences that he hears result in bewilderment; and often he concludes that the English do not know how to use their own language."

This excellent manual stresses the importance of phonetics and intonation, and also shows what is actual everyday speech in contrast with bookish idiom. It is referred to here as a model for a type of work much needed in modern languages.

PARGEMENT, M. S.—*The Effect on Achievement of Method Used*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1927, pp. 502-512.

STUDENTS who began French in college (University of Michigan) were divided into four groups, two of whom were taught by the direct method, two by a grammar-translation method. The direct method involved: (a) teaching accurate pronunciation from the beginning, (b) making the text the centre of instruction, (c) reducing

the use of the mother tongue to a minimum, (*d*) teaching of grammar only incidentally, (*e*) avoiding translation into the foreign language, except at the beginning. The grammar-translation method involved the study of a grammar, with translation into the foreign language, practice in pronouncing, reading aloud and listening to French. Records of progress made by the groups were taken after six weeks, at the end of the first semester, and at the end of the second semester. On the first tests and in the final examinations, on tests arranged so as to be fair to both groups, the grammar-translation method gave the better results. The second test, made after one semester, showed the direct method students superior, and the author asserts that, if it were possible, "to give at least one more full semester entirely to the assimilation and reproduction of language and postpone reading . . ., it is a safe guess, that at the end of the year the direct method classes would have achieved infinitely better results than the others". Their written and oral compositions were more like "real French", and were more spontaneous. Two important conclusions are drawn: "1. Method has an effect on achievement . . .; (2) The pure direct method cannot successfully be used in a two year course, unless we willingly sacrifice the most important aspect of language,—an intelligent reading knowledge." The experiment was well controlled, and the conclusions can be disproven, if at all, only by an equally careful study.

PATTERSON, A. S.—*Meditations on Methodology*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1927, pp. 365-375.

THE major portion of the article is concerned with meditations on the pedagogical significance of certain principles, believed by the writer to be psychologically

valid. Passive processes, such as seeing or hearing a word, are of very little value; the student should both write and speak it, if he wishes to fix it. The best order of procedure in building up this four-strand bond of retentive association is, first, to hear the word pronounced several times by the teacher; then to pronounce it repeatedly, trying to improve the pronunciation each time by attending to the phonetic directions of the teacher; then to see the word, noting its appearance and spelling; and lastly to write it several times.

In a vocabulary list the foreign word should come first and the English word follow it. The eye travels more readily across the page from left to right and with such a sequence the pupil sees first the foreign word and then the English word. Naturally, in the process of recall, the law of association by succession will operate. The foreign word, acting as the stimulus, will call up the English word and the idea far more readily than the English word or the idea will call up the foreign word. We forget what we learn; we remember what we overlearn.

*Report of the Commission on Length of Elementary Education.* Univ. of Chicago, 1927 (Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 34). xi + 167 pp.

THE report deals with representative American and Canadian schools, but makes no reference to the inclusion of foreign languages in the curriculum.

"Because they are not admitted to the high school until they have completed eight grades, pupils in the United States and Canada are held at a rudimentary level for a longer period than are the pupils of any other civilized country . . . Twelve year-old pupils are reading orally when they ought to be gaining a mastery of literature. In short, they are treated as intellectually immature,



as incompetent to deal with subjects which can be demonstrated by relatively easy experiments to be stimulating to them and to be well within their powers of comprehension". (p. 133).

SPAULDING, F. T.—*The Small Junior High School, a study of its possibilities and limitations*. Harvard University Press, Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. IX, 1927. 226 pp. \$2.35.

"—*Foreign Language*: a general language course offered in the eighth grade, to be followed by opportunity for election of specialized work in French or Latin. The general language course should emphasize the nature of languages and their growth, the relation of English to other languages, the opportunities which may be afforded by a study of foreign languages, both ancient and modern, and skills required in learning and using a foreign tongue. Small space should be given to formal training. For schools in which the general language course cannot be developed, the first language elective should be specifically exploratory in nature." (pp. 189-190).

STUART, H.—*The Training of Modern Foreign Language Teachers for the Secondary Schools in the United States*. Teachers' College, New York, 1927. x + 111 pp. \$1.50.

AN interpretation of material collected by the Modern Foreign Language Study: organization and administration, character and content of courses; observation and practical teaching.

UHL, W. L.—*Secondary School Curricula*. New York, Macmillan, 1927. xx + 582 pp. \$2.10.

DEALS with historical development (primitive, Greek,

Roman, and medieval, early modern times, and modern secondary-school curriculum theories and practices from 1730-1900), criticism, educational objectives and curriculum values, pupils, local conditions as affecting curricula, and present-day curricula.

The years 1820-1890 represent the formative period of modern secondary school curricula, the triumph of realism or the new learning over classicism, and the consequent admission of languages (other than Greek and Latin), the sciences, and history. Chapter VII is perhaps the most interesting for the language teacher, with its discussion of controversies centering about the humanistic, realistic, and liberal studies, provoked in part by the growing realism and its demands for the expansion of the programme of studies; attacks on and defence of Latin (Eliot, Flexner, Bobbitt, *vs.* Shorey, West), disciplinary values of studies, sociological conditions as determining curricula. But the whole work is invaluable for the reconsideration of curricula problems, and makes available a judicious digest of the extensive controversial literature on the subject.

ADDENDA: Other manuals are: O. JESPERSEN, *How to Teach a Foreign Language* (direct method), London, Allen & Unwin, 1904; F. B. KIRKMAN, *The Teaching of Foreign Languages*, London University Tutorial Press, 1909; H. O'GRADY, *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages by the Organized Method*, London, Constable, 1915; E. GOURIO, *The Direct Method of Teaching French*, Cambridge, Mass., Riverside Press, 1921; *Course of Study in French for High Schools*, University of Iowa Extension Bulletin, No. 105 (1924),—general organization of the course, objectives, texts, bibliography (including French civilization and life, history, literature, dictionaries, news-

papers, teaching devices, publications of text-books, selected list of texts for supplementary reading, etc.) *The Teaching of Modern Languages (French, German, Spanish) in the High School*, Bulletin of the North Carolina State Normal and Industrial College, Greensboro, N.C., 1918.

For closely allied subjects, the following reports are useful: *The Classics in Education* (His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1923, 2s.); *The Teaching of English in England* (*ibid.*, 1924, 1s. 6d.); *The Classical Investigation* (Princeton University Press, 1924-1925, parts I and III).

#### IV. LANGUAGE

##### (a) *Bilingualism*

RONJAT, J.—*Le Développement du langage observé chez un enfant bilingue*. Paris, Champion, 1913. \$1.10.

A STUDY, carried out with meticulous detail, of the linguistic development of his son, Louis, born 1908. The father was French; Mme. Ronjat was German; both were bilingual. From the moment of birth the child was spoken to in German by Mme. Ronjat, her relatives and friends, and in French by M. Ronjat, his relatives and friends. The reason for starting this régime before the child began to speak was the father's belief that this was a period of incubation during which the sounds of the language heard are in some way and to some extent retained by the child. The proportion of French-speaking and German-speaking persons surrounding Louis varied from time to time, and the author attempts to trace the influence of a dominantly monolingual environment on the language habits of the child. At the end of the 12th month, Louis

could make himself understood in German; a French vocabulary of equal extent did not appear until the 15th month. The study is too detailed to allow for much abridgement, and the author is much too cautious to make hasty generalizations. Only a few of the more significant findings can be indicated: (1) From the first the articulation of the one language is distinct from the other. Phonemes might be borrowed temporarily, but the transfer did not persist save in a single instance,—Louis used the closed “e” or “oe” in French words followed by “r”, probably a borrowing from “mehr”, “sehr”, etc. (2) Phonemes that are identical to both languages are simultaneously acquired or lost in both languages. (3) There was a marked tendency to assimilation, *i.e.* to carry over the initial consonant of the tonic syllable of a word to the final consonant of the same syllable, or the initial consonant of the next syllable. The author examines critically the statements of Wundt and Grammont with regard to the tendency to assimilation in the language of children, and in fact of all speech. (4) The explosive phoneme is repeated more easily by children than the implosive. (5) No clearly defined principle governing the substitution of one consonant for another could be found. (6) Louis could speak correct French and German shortly after the third year. M. Ronjat asks: Was this later than would have been true, had the child been brought up as a monolingual? Did bilingualism retard the acquisition of correct pronunciation? To answer the question he compares the phonemes acquired at each stage by Louis, with those reported by other investigators, notably Grammont, Bloch, Housey and Pollock. His conclusion is that the slowness, if there was any, was not due to bilingualism. (7) The author investigated the borrowing from one language to another. In the



third year Louis either borrowed directly "at all hazards" when he needed a word, or adapted it phonetically. This borrowing was both of words and of syntax, *e.g.* he tended to place German adjectives after the noun as he did in French. He would frequently place the verb or present participle in French at the end of a phrase or sentence according to the German custom (*un bateau faire*). The transfer in syntax was chiefly from the systematic German to the less uniform French. By the 49th month Louis would ask in one language for a word in the other. (8) Louis was eventually bilingual; a direct connection was established between the words of each language and the objects or situations. (9) By the 40th month Louis was conscious of bilingualism.

The author discusses the subject of "Krähen" ("crowing", referring to the sounds used by the child after he commences to express himself in noises other than cries, and before he has started to imitate the phonemes of grown people). Children use in this first prattle sounds which are not in the vocabulary of their parents. M. Moringer points out that some of these whistling sounds appear in the Slavic languages, some of the liquid and nasal sounds in the Romance languages. Many of these "Krähen" disappear when the child commences to imitate his parents. The author suggests that this ability of the child to emit sounds completely foreign to the language of his parents may be the reason for the greater flexibility of the child in learning foreign language sounds. Other factors of course are present,—the lack of standards, differences in motivation, and the lack of interference.

—In 1923, West obtained from Dr. Ronjat further information as to Louis' development. This is reported in detail in West's book, *Bilingualism*, reviewed elsewhere. Louis' school training was in a French school. As

a consequence Dr. Ronjat doubted Louis' ability to think mathematically in German. On the other hand his best literary work was done in German,—his *Muttersprache*. In rapid conversation he would sometimes, though rarely, borrow a word from one language, but about equally in either direction.

SAER, D. J., SMITH, F., HUGHES, J.—*The Bilingual Problem*. Published for the Univ. Coll. of Wales, Aberystwyth, Hughes and Son, Wrexham, 1924. 112 pp. 60 cents.

AN examination of the educational, psychological and sociological resultants of bilingualism as seen in Wales.

Smith investigated the school performance of bilingual children and of monoglots in urban schools by means of intelligence tests. Four different groups of children were tested three times, at intervals of one year.

The psychological tests used included English composition, Ebbinghaus's Completion Test (filling in omissions in a mutilated story), the Analogy Test (supplying the missing term in an incomplete verbal analogy), and the Word-building Test (making up as large a number of words as possible from five given letters). It is important to notice that, although English alone was used as the test language, the comparison was not between English monoglots and Welsh bilinguists, but between earlier and later performances of the same children.

In the composition test the monoglots had the advantage in each school. The "completion" test showed that the monoglots had the advantage in three out of the four schools, a result also shown by the "analogy" test. The "word-building" test was inconclusive, the bilinguists showing the advantage in two of the schools, and the monoglots in the other two. When the results of the

four schools were combined the monoglots had the advantage in every test. The final results of the investigation, therefore, go to suggest that the bilingual child in Wales, under the conditions now operative, is unable to derive the same intellectual advantages from the school as the monoglot.

Saer's investigation into the general intelligence of monoglot and bilingual children was made in five rural districts which were selected as exhibiting similar social conditions. With very few exceptions all the children from seven to twelve years of age in these districts were tested, thus providing an estimation of the whole child population. In addition, the children of the same ages in two large urban schools were tested, making a total of over 1,400 children. These were examined individually, and by the same investigator. The test results were demonstrated to have a high reliability.

The tests used were those of the Stanford revision of the Binet scale, to which were added those tests in Binet's 1911 scale as well as those in Burt's English version of the Binet which were omitted from the Stanford scale.

The test questions were carefully translated into a style of Welsh easily comprehended by the Welsh-speaking children, and each child was tested by means of his mother tongue. This was found to secure an optimum motivation and co-operation.

The general conclusion from this extensive investigation was that monoglot English-speaking children in the *rural* districts of Wales showed a considerable and a consistent superiority over the bilingual children in the same districts. The most obvious factor that seems to account for this difference is the use of two languages by the bilinguals before the power of using one effectively has been acquired. The results obtained by the same tests in

urban and industrial districts did not show this consistent superiority of monoglots over bilinguals. In these districts the results were practically the same for both classes, but it is to be noted that here the Welsh-speaking children had habitually used the second language during their play before reaching school age.

The median intelligence quotient varied among the four groups in the following way:

Urban bilingual group .....	100
Urban monoglot „ .....	99
Rural bilingual „ .....	86
Rural monoglot „ .....	96

Thus the two urban groups and the rural monoglots differ by very little, whilst the rural bilinguals show a marked inferiority. It should be added that in a large urban centre, where fifty-five children of eight years of age were examined, the monoglot group showed a clear superiority over the bilinguals.

The same conclusion can be drawn from the group intelligence tests worked by 939 students in the University College of Wales, Aberystwyth, during the last three years. The monoglot students coming from rural districts in Wales showed a considerable superiority over the bilingual students from similar districts, thus suggesting that the difference in mental ability as revealed by intelligence tests is of a permanent nature, since it persists in students throughout their university career.

In addition to this long investigation into general intelligence, special tests were devised which were thought to be specially applicable to the problem. One test required an estimation of the sense of dextrality, which was made by asking the subjects to show their right hand, to point to their left ear, etc., in which 671 bilingual and 281 monoglot children of 8 years and over were examined. The monoglots had the advantage in both rural and



urban areas. A second test consisted of a series of six rhythms, graduated in difficulty, in which 339 unselected boys in an urban school were required to tap out specified patterns, and to enunciate them. The monoglots were superior to the bilinguals at each year of age. Out of a maximum of 24 in marks, the monoglots showed an average increase of 3.45 marks and the bilinguals only of 2.84 marks per year.

Significant differences were found also in the range of vocabulary at different ages. In rural districts the Welsh vocabulary of the bilingual children showed a sharp rise at ten years of age, as well as a less steep rise in their English vocabulary. In the same or in similar districts the monoglots' vocabulary showed the sharpest rise at eight and nine years of age. In urban districts both monoglot and bilingual children showed a corresponding rise in their English vocabulary at nine years. The period of rapid acquirement of vocabulary seems therefore to be postponed, in the case of rural bilinguals, for a year or more, with a corresponding retardation in the formation of ideas; the authors quote from Laurie:

"If it were possible for a child to live in two languages at once equally well, so much the worse. His intellectual and spiritual growth would not thereby be doubled, but halved. Unity of mind and character would have great difficulty in asserting itself in such circumstances."

A similar conclusion seems to be given by a comparison of English and Welsh composition, by bilingual children, on subjects of their own choice, and expressing their personal interests. The main points of difference observed were the following:

(a) Welsh composition showed greater lucidity, better idiom, and more continuity of form and thought than English composition by the same children.

(b) The choice of subject in the English composition was stilted, being almost completely confined to subjects which showed the influence of school lessons and school books.

(c) The Welsh composition showed more evidence of reasoning power than the English composition of the same children.

(d) A greater power of individuality of expression was evident in the Welsh composition; the English showed snatches of school phrases and indifferently memorized verbal expressions which had not been comprehended by the child.

The authors conclude from this collection of statistical evidence that, under present-day conditions and the organization of schools in Wales, the child who has learnt two languages at an early age possesses mental characteristics peculiar to himself. In the case of rural children the evidence is more pronounced than in the case of urban children, though the evidence from the tests of dextrality and of rhythm indicate that there are also significant differences among urban children. The simplest solution that suggests itself as explaining these complexities is that children who become bilingual at an early age by learning the second language during their play and in association with other children, suffer less disturbance than those who are obliged to learn the second language at school, and continue to use their mother tongue in their association with playmates.

The authors are careful to point out that their conclusions cannot be assumed to apply universally to all bilingual children; the cases, for instance, of bilingual children who have been taught both languages at their homes would not come under the same category as those referred to in this inquiry. A bibliography, referring to

original articles in educational and psychological journals, is appended.

—*Welsh in Education and Life* (London, Stationery Office, 1927, 1s. 6d.) is the report of the Departmental Committee set up in 1925 by the President of the Board of Education "to inquire into the position of the Welsh language and to advise as to its promotion in the educational system of Wales". The traditional defences of the language have been seriously weakened in the last 50 years by improved communications, and the committee look on the present policy of the British Broadcasting Corporation as one of the most serious menaces to the life of the Welsh language,—a modern condition that, under similar circumstances, may have a profound influence on French in Canada. There is also a lack of properly trained teachers of Welsh in the schools.

HENSS, W.—*Das Problem der Zwei- und Mehrsprachigkeit und seine Bedeutung für den Unterricht und die Erziehung in deutschen Grenz- und Auslandsschulen.* Zeit. f. Päd. Psych., 1927, pp. 393-414.

PRELIMINARY report of an investigation made in Dutch schools of the injurious effect of bilingualism on the speech habits and other intellectual processes of children who learn two languages simultaneously as asserted by Epstein, Saer, Smith and Hughes, and others. This article contains no quantitative data on the question. Non-language intelligence tests were used.

WEST, MICHAEL.—*Bilingualism.* Bureau of Education, Occas. Rep. No. 13, Calcutta, 1926. xi + 354 pp. \$1.45.

A BOOK of outstanding significance to all persons interested in bilingual problems and to the larger group interested in curriculum construction. The author, the

principal of a Teachers' Training College, and a member of the university staff in Dacca, India, came to his problem with a broad historical background, a sympathy for the vernacular (Bengali) as a means of expressing the "dear and intimate things" of home, thoroughly conversant with the literature of scientific education, as this is understood to-day, with an experimental attitude, and with much psychological insight. As a result one finds a discussion of the needs for bilingual accomplishment, a history of the policy of bilingualism in India under private traders and British governments, an analysis of the relation of national language and national sentiment, and an interpretation of the Bengali's fear of Western culture, presented as a background for the educational experiment herein reported. The author finds that "there is certainly no advantage in being born in a bilingual country, but rather a disadvantage". (p. 3). This he later qualifies by saying that "if a child's education is bilingual in its receptive aspect, but unilingual in its expressive aspect, bilingualism is not necessarily a handicap."

He rejects claims as to the disciplinary value of a second language, maintaining with Schuchardt that "if a bilingual man has two strings to his bow, both of them are rather slack." On the basis of a theoretical analysis of the problem and some experimental investigations, he concludes against the use of the foreign language as the medium of instruction: "The foreign medium is not a necessary part of bilingualism; on the contrary it is both unnecessary and actually undesirable even for the purpose for which it has been advocated, *viz.*, improvement of foreign speech and writing ability." On the other hand, but a slight disadvantage will result in the use of the foreign language in the text-book.



The primary need for foreign language learning in Bengal is not its commercial value, or even its political value, but the literary paucity of the vernacular, and the absence of technical and scientific publications. In Bengal, as elsewhere, the great majority of pupils drop out of school before the completion of the high school course, and a decision as to the form of foreign language training to be given must be made in terms of what West calls the "surrender value" of the subject, *i.e.*, the proportional amount of benefit which will be derived by any pupil from an incomplete course of instruction in that subject. If it is necessary to obtain a high degree of efficiency in a subject before it can be used by the individual, then the surrender value of one year's instruction might be zero, or approximately so. The course must be so designed as to have a high surrender value at every point, no matter how early a boy may leave school. Of the four possible types of language learning,—to speak, to understand, to write and to read a language—that which will give the highest surrender value to Bengali boys is the ability to read English; the second is the ability to write it. To those who object that all forms of language are psychologically interrelated, West rejoins vigorously, maintaining that in the initial stages "Learning to read a language is by far the shortest road to learning to speak and write it"; that it is not necessary to preface the course in reading with laborious drill on pronunciation. "We may be satisfied if he (the Bengali student) pronounces it correctly and consistently according to the facilities of his own language". Correctness of sound is less important in intelligibility than correctness of rhythm, and training in rhythm secures larger and surer returns.

Having thus defined the relative importance of the

various forms of language learning, the author next analyses reading ability into the psychological functions involved. In this section the author considers various objective techniques for measurement of progress. He finds that the average Bengali boy of 16 has the English vocabulary of a 9 or 10 year English boy. Three experiments were undertaken to determine by what means and to what extent English reading ability could be improved. This limitation of vocabulary and reading power has hitherto been recognized, but the method of dealing with it has been to offer the Bengali boy texts much too immature for him. The author's solution was to rewrite English texts into a vocabulary suited to the child at each stage of his development. The vocabulary to be used was selected from word-frequency counts such as Thorndike's, the theory being that, (1) the Bengali child should learn first of all the words that he will most frequently meet, (2) new words should be so distributed through a text that the pupil does not become discouraged. Progress was measured by standardized reading tests, *e.g.*, the Kansas test, and the results obtained are almost incredible,—approximating two to three years in 10 to 17 weeks. Without this grading of vocabulary, the progress of the child in reading ability was exceedingly slow. The training was entirely in English, but the improvement in Bengali was equally marked,—a point of significance in the problem of transfer. The English vocabulary gain, as measured by the tests used, was about one year. Before-questions were used, and found effective as a method of training. Adequate controls were used in all the crucial experiments. Ideas gained in English were rather evanescent, a fact that leads the author to suggest that the unit of reading should be materially less than that ordinarily used. With this method of teaching,

a surrender value of about 40% could be obtained at the end of one year and about 80% at the end of two years. The next task was to construct a complete set of textbooks (see below, p. 261). The book is well annotated and contains numerous tables and graphs. Frequent reference is made throughout to American literature and to a book by the author, *Learning to Read a Foreign Language*, 1926.

*Report of the Committee appointed to enquire into the Condition of the Schools attended by French-speaking Pupils.* Toronto, (Department of Education, Provincial Parliament Buildings), 1927. 149 pp.

IN the Province of Ontario there are in French-speaking districts 450 elementary schools in which French and English are taught. The report deals with the efficiency of instruction in these languages and such other public-school subjects as arithmetic, history, geography and writing. The poorest records in written English and French occur in the same counties (Prescott and Russell). Here only 6% of the schools reach the required standard in English and only 25% of the schools read French with facility. These are French-speaking communities. In the whole province 58 teachers were so deficient in their knowledge of English as to be unfit to teach the subject. Of these 35 were in the schools of Prescott and Russell. In these same counties there are large numbers of teachers who hold no Ontario certificates, or hold certificates that have expired.

The report represents a study of bilingualism in an environment made hostile to its attainment by racial and religious animosities, which have long been the shuttlecock of political parties.

"While the number of schools which presented a

satisfactory standard of proficiency in both French and English is not large, yet the number is sufficient to indicate the possibility of attaining this end. Proficiency in the use of one language is assuredly no barrier to securing equal proficiency in the other if proper methods of organization and instruction are followed. Schools of all types were found in which French and English were used with apparently equal facility, one-roomed schools in rural communities, two, three, and four-roomed schools in small villages, and large graded schools in cities and towns. Many were found in mixed communities, and several in purely French-speaking communities.

Roughly, the schools may be classified as belonging to three types:

Type 1. Schools attended by French-speaking children who are fairly proficient in English when they come to school.

Type 2. Schools in which French-speaking children who have acquired little or no English before they come to school have special opportunities of learning it in their intercourse in the class-room and on the playground with the English-speaking pupils in attendance at the same school.

Type 3. Schools established in French-speaking communities where the children have no knowledge of English before they enter school and no opportunities of learning it except through class instruction.

The necessity for securing better instruction in English and in French and of improving the general status of the schools is so urgent that we suggest that it be made the responsibility of two special officers to be appointed by the Department of Education,—a Director of English Instruction, and a Director of French Instruction. The duty of these officers should be to keep themselves con-



stantly in touch with the schools in all parts of the province, to study all phases of the problems presented, and to co-operate with inspectors and teachers in setting up standards and in devising ways and means to make instruction effective. In addition, the directors should, by their reports, keep the Minister of Education continuously informed respecting actual conditions in the schools."

(b) *Composition*

COLE, R. D.—*Free Composition vs. Translation into the Foreign Language in Developing Ability to Write a Foreign Language*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1927, pp. 200-206.

THIS experiment shows, although the number of students included was too small to make the results reliable, that free composition gives better results than the translation method. The experiment was made before the American Council Test in Composition was available.

WARSHAW, J.—*Spanish Composition*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1922, pp. 17-25.

A LARGE percentage of the errors in composition committed by students is the consequence of neglect in the handling of one or more of five factors: position, agreement, gender, mood or accentuation. It requires unremitting drill for two years to secure control over these.

(c) *Dictation*

BETZ, A.—*The Function of Dictation in the Teaching of Modern Languages*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1918, pp. 150-1.

STUDENTS may be classified according to their method of learning:

1. The audile gets his impression of a new word through the ear, so he best learns by hearing the word spoken by another.

2. The visualizer gets his mental images through the eye, and is therefore helped when he sees the new word printed or written.

3. The motile learns best through movements,—those of the vocal organs in speaking and those of the arm and hand in writing.

In the dictation lesson all three of these means of approach are used. Each student has 3 repetitions—first through the ear when the instructor pronounces the word, then through the muscles during the writing and during the almost unconscious movements of the vocal organs when the student repeats the word to himself: and finally through the eye when he sees the written word before him. From the point of view of psychology then, dictation is a sound method of teaching language forms. Choose a selection with which the students are fairly familiar, but not one that they have memorized.

As a result of dictation a closer connection is made between pronunciation and spelling, and the particular faults of each student are clearly indicated and the individual help needed is suggested.

(d) *Grammar*

RAYMOND, ELEANOR H.—*Experiences with Parts of Speech*. Psych. Rev. Monog., 1907.

THIS monograph, partly introspective in nature and partly anthropological, is concerned with the question as to the origin and use of prepositions. The major portion of the study has little direct significance for modern language students, but a few comments and references are of value. In sentences, as in all higher language

structures, we do not have the complete experience for each word that we do for the same words when spoken separately. The tendency in all higher combinations is, temporarily, to deprive the word of all associations that do not contribute to the meaning of the sentence as a whole. Most writers consider nouns and adjectives to have arisen together at the very beginning of language, with some priority given to the concrete noun quality. Bréal had a pronoun rather than a noun significance, but his argument does not seem convincing. He agrees with Adam Smith as to the priority of intransitive and impersonal verbs over transitive verbs. Adverbs came after adjectives and prepositions last of all.

BYRNE, L.—*The Syntax of High School Latin*. University of Chicago Press, 1924 (First ed. 1909). \$1.00.

A CONTRIBUTION to a scientific basis for determining by a frequency count the elements of syntax that should be stressed for greater economy of time and greater efficiency in results. It does for syntax what Lodge's *Vocabulary of High School Latin* (Teachers' College, New York) does for vocabulary. The introduction calls attention to the charge that examinations (and teaching) call for words and constructions that are not common, and on the other hand disregard many that are common and therefore useful. There are good prefatory remarks on the reasons for studying syntax and the nature of the reading process. It is interesting to note in the revised edition that college-entrance examinations show the influence of the present compilation.

SONNENSCHIN, E. A.—*Teaching of Grammar in Modern Language Work*. Mod. Lang. Teach., 1915, pp. 43-47.

THE pupil has to learn that no rules of grammar are

absolute, for the facts have been necessarily simplified and some things have been deliberately left out of view in framing the rule; but still, if the rule is well-framed, cases which lie on its fringe, or outside of its borders, receive some light from the rule to which they are exceptions.

The teacher should bear in mind that grammatical rules are not all of equal importance, and one of his first duties is to cultivate a sense of proportion. He must always bear in mind that the grammar that is needed for reading a language is less than is required for writing it.

Before grammar teaching can be made thoroughly fruitful all the grammar taught in a school must be permeated by the same principles as have led to the reform of English grammar. All the languages taught must be treated in their scientific connection as members of a single family of languages. On the basis of science it has been found possible to erect a system by which not only the unification but also the simplification of the teaching of grammar and grammars can be effected in our schools.

—In *The Soul of Grammar* (Cambridge Univ. Press, 1927), Sonnenschein deals with the organic unity of the commoner ancient and modern languages.

DEIHL, J. D.—*Choosing a Grammar for Beginners*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1918, pp. 368-372.

PRESENTS a score-sheet which the writer has found of service not only in making his own decisions as to the relative values of grammars, but particularly in training a class of college seniors in the art and science of deciding on the merits of texts.

MEILLET, A.—*Les Caractères du Verbe*. Rev. Phil., 1920, pp. 1-24.

THERE are in reality only two kinds of words between



which distinctions should be made—the category of nouns, and the category of verbs. The noun indicates the *thing*, whether it refers to abstract ideas or concrete things; the verb indicates the *process* and refers to action, state or passage from one state to another. The distinction of noun and verb is always expressed by some grammatical procedure. In inflected languages nouns are declined and verbs are conjugated. Sometimes one of these may go, *e.g.*, many of the Indo-European languages and the Romance languages have lost the declension, but have kept more or less completely the conjugation. The distinction of thing and process is expressed under such circumstances primarily by placing complements before or after the noun or verb. Thus *love* is a noun or verb; which it is depends on the word preceding it, as *the love*, *a love*, *I love*. In non-inflected languages the isolated word is meaningless; the word as it appears in the phrase or sentence alone admits of interpretation.

SUNDSTROM, C. O.—*Grammar in First Year Spanish*.  
Mod. Lang. Jour., 1920, pp. 178-183.

ASSERTING that grammar study, "pure and unadulterated" has been found the best in acquiring a correct and facile use of the vernacular, he argues that it has a similar value for foreign language learning.

CHURCH, H. W.—*Teaching the French Verb*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1921, pp. 249-255.

No student can successfully learn to read, write or speak French until he masters the conjugation of the verbs and can use the forms with ease and accuracy. The methods in use are wasteful of energy and arouse antagonism toward the subject as a whole. The most serious methodological errors are the stressing of irregular forms, and the

rote-memory nature of the task. In great part the conjugation of the French verb is logical and the writer presents a table, illustrating a method that he claims admits of universal application and that materially reduces the rote-memory task.

KIRKMAN, F. B.—*Grammatical Inaccuracy*. Mod. Lang., 1921, pp. 9-11.

THE large amount of grammatical inaccuracy in the modern foreign language class-room cannot be attributed to any one method. It is due rather to failure to carry the practice up to the point of *fixing* the habit. It is speech *habits* that we are out to get formed,—and correct doing is learnt by correct doing.

It appears to be established as a credible hypothesis that a class will after an interval of time—say, two days,—know or do what it has been taught better than at the end of the lesson in which the teaching was given, and that without any intervening instruction. If this is so, there must come at some period after a lesson a moment of maximum efficiency and it seems to follow that review will be most effective if it occurs at or about that moment.

LEROY, O. G.—*Tendencies of Popular French*. Mod. Lang., 1921, pp. 64-66.

A SURVEY of the forms commonly used by uneducated French people shows that the French language evinces a strong tendency to get rid of different grammatical intricacies still adhered to in correct parlance. A remarkable feature of these forms is that most of them have a striking similarity to English forms. The author refers to changes in verb, noun, adjective and preposition that suggest an English influence.

STROHMEYER, F.—*Französische Grammatik auf Sprach-historisch-psychologischer Grundlage*. Leipzig, Teubner, 1921. vi + 298 pp. \$1.60.

A USEFUL reference book for the origins of modern usage. Besides historical evolution, attention is given to psychological phenomena that affect speech, as for example, the disturbing factors of analogy and grammatical rules. Colloquial, familiar, literary and other forms of speech are distinguished. The work is not an application of Brunot's principles, but is based on works like Meyer-Lübke's *Historische Grammatik des Französischen*.

BOVÉE, A. G.—*Some Fallacies of Formalism*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1923, pp. 131-144.

AN evaluation, theoretical and experimental, of the value of formal grammar. From the theoretic standpoint the writer points out that the grammar method ignores phonetics, and leaves the problem of pronunciation to imitation, which is demonstrably ineffective. Language is treated from the philological rather than from the functional point of view. We may confidently attribute a large part of the wastage in our teaching to this.

The writer holds that the grammatical knowledge acquired through the practice of translating English sentences into French does not carry over into increased power to get the thought from the printed page, and devised tests in an attempt to determine to what extent grammatical knowledge becomes an active and subsidiary factor in the ability to read with comprehension.

A translation test and a grammar test were prepared. The former consisted of a series of 40 questions given orally, 10 for each year of a four-year course, so formulated that a one word answer either in English or French would give unmistakable evidence of comprehension. In order

to construct the applied grammar test a canvass was made of the principles of grammar which seemed to be essential to a good reading knowledge because of their frequent recurrence. The material was arranged in the form of completion or substitution exercises. The tests were given in several schools, and the article contains graphs showing the results obtained.

In one large city school in which the grammar-translation method was used there was a marked increase of grammatical knowledge in the fourth year, but this improvement was not accompanied by a corresponding increase in power to grasp the thought of a passage.

In another school in which the direct method was used, there was an apparent decrease in grammatical knowledge but an increase in reading ability.

It is readily apparent that grammatical knowledge is not the decisive factor in reading power.

These results are similar to those obtained by Professor H. A. Brown (from a study of Latin) in the schools of the state of New Hampshire.

EHRENTEICH, A.—*Die Psychologische Syntax im Schulunterricht*. Ztsch. f. Päd. Psych., 1925, pp. 455-461.

A POLEMIC rejoinder to Tacke's discussion of necessary reforms in modern language education, with special reference to the nature and value of syntax. A bibliography of six titles is appended.

#### (e) *Pronunciation*

MARAGE, DR.—*Formation des Voyelles*. L'Année Psych., 1899, pp. 485-492.

A DESCRIPTION of the anatomy and physiology of speech. The author examines critically three theories as to the



psychological processes involved in vowel formation,—those of Helmholtz, Hermann and Guillemin, and contributes an original one.

ZÜND-BURGUET, A.—*Exercises pratiques et méthodiques de prononciation française*. 11<sup>e</sup> ed. revue et corrigée par H. Wengler. Marburg, Elwert, 1919 (first ed. 1901). 55 cents.

For a quarter of a century, this has been one of the best drill books for French pronunciation. In the connected narrative one misses the indication of intonation.

SEYDEL, P.—*Psychologie und Phonetik*. Ztsch. f. Angew. Psych., 1909, pp. 544-550.

A DISCUSSION of the relations of phonetics and psychology. The author shows that articulation of spoken discourse changes with meaning. The same sentence may be stated so as to convey very different thoughts. This indicates a limitation to phonetics, and points to the more recent emphasis on intonation.

BERLAGE, F.—*Der Einfluss von Artikulation and Gehör beim Nachsingen von Stimmklängen*. Psych. Studien, 1910, pp. 39-140.

AN attempt to analyse the internal mechanism of vocal pitch regulation, with particular attention to the influence of articulatory movements of the larynx and of the mouth.

The author finds that accuracy in imitating the pitch of another's voice decreases regularly with increasing length of interval between the enunciation of a standard tone by an experimenter and repetition by a subject. Accuracy is greatest when the pause is from 1 to 2 seconds. The maximum time-lapse investigated was 30 seconds. When the tone is reproduced too quickly, say one-tenth of a second, the pitch is usually too low.

Berlage contends that the subject regulates the pitch of his voice by kinaesthetic sensations and auditory images, and not by the auditory sensations peripherally aroused.

The significance of this study is indirect. Its chief pedagogical implication is that it is better to require the pupil to reproduce the sound made by the teacher almost immediately. It is suggestive of further psychological enquiry into other factors affecting accurate imitation.

CHURCHMAN, P. H.—*On the Teaching of French Pronunciation*. Sch. Rev., 1914, pp. 545-554.

SOME system of visual notation for French sounds is needed for all pupils. A phonetic alphabet much simpler than the International will suffice for beginning students, but teachers-in-training and advanced students should use the latter. The writer describes a method of phonetic teaching in detail, and gives illustrations of his principles of "inductive approach" and "contrast by perspective".

JONES, D.—*The Importance of Intonation in the Pronunciation of Foreign Languages*. Mod. Lang. Teach., 1914, pp. 201-205.

INTONATION may be defined as the variations in the pitch of the musical note produced by the vocal chords in pronouncing voiced sounds. It may be regarded as a practically continuous feature of speech. The analysis of intonation is a somewhat complicated matter, but it does not follow that the practical acquisition of the intonation of a foreign language is necessarily difficult.

As intonation may affect the meaning of a single word, so it may also affect the meaning of a phrase or a sentence. These pages contain different intonations of French and

English words represented by curved lines placed above the phonetic transcription of the words, followed by the different meaning each intonation represents.

"Sometimes the mere drawing of rough intonation curves is sufficient to get pupils to give the right intonation. Talking machines are also very useful in this connection. By repeating a number of times short portions of a record, (say 3 or 4 words at a time), the intonation tune becomes so fixed in the memory that the pupils can hardly help imitating it".

PASSY, P.—*A French Phonetic Reader*. University of London Press, 1923 (new impression of edition published in 1914). One of the well-known London Phonetic Readers, edited by D. Jones, including German, by A. Egan, Italian by A. Camilli, Spanish by T. Navarro (in preparation), and *Conversations Françaises* by Paul Passy. These useful works record colloquial speech, and are intended for systematic pronunciation exercises practised under the guidance of phonetically-trained teachers. They are published for from 2s. to 4s. 6d. each.

SCHMIDT, LYDIA.—*A practical Course in Phonetics*. Sch. Rev., 1915, pp. 555-558.

AN outline of the course in "practical phonetics" given in connection with some of the work in German in the University of Chicago High School. Practically all the work is done through imitation. Special directions for producing the correct sounds are given only in individual cases where unusual difficulty is experienced. The first five or six recitations of the course are devoted entirely to drill in the pronunciation of individual sounds or words. After that this drill is reduced to five or ten

minutes daily, and in the course of a few weeks is eliminated altogether. On account of the phonetic spelling of the German language it is considered unnecessary to use the phonetic symbols. The long and short vowels, the *umlaut* vowels, and diphthongs with the glottal catch are taught first.

The greatest stress is laid on those sounds which differ most from the corresponding English sounds.

WAXMAN, S. M.—*The Teaching of the Pronunciation of Foreign Languages*. Educ. Rev., 1915, pp. 82-91.

IN direct ratio, as a child grows older, the more "difficult" becomes the acquisition of new sounds, because the muscles of the vocal organs are not so flexible, and the assimilative faculty is weaker.

A knowledge of the phonetic symbols used in French, German and English, makes them of value to the students of these languages for reference purposes, as we have now pronouncing dictionaries of these three languages which use the symbols of the International Phonetic Association. The symbols once learned for one language can with a few additions be used for another.

Spanish being one of the most phonetically written of modern languages needs no phonetic notation. For German there is greater need, but for French,—and the same holds true for English,—it is hopeless to try to teach pronunciation with the present orthography since the spelling has so little relation to the pronunciation.

BARROWS, S. T.—*Experimental Phonetics as an Aid to the Study of Language*. Ped. Sem., 1916, p. 63.

A BRIEF account of the state of experimental phonetics, with particular reference to the Hamburg Laboratory, visited in 1915.



A short description is given of the speech kymograph on which graphic records are taken of the vibrations in the throat, external to the larynx, the mouth and the nose. By means of this instrument, differences in pronunciation of the same letter in various languages can be studied, as well as differences in "sentence melody."

It is suggested that an analysis of speech by means of this and allied techniques would be of great advantage in the study of foreign languages if teachers and students would take the trouble to learn the facts. Sentences, words, and letters have various durations and emphasis in various languages, and it aids greatly if these sound variations can be graphically indicated. Such a study may also reveal differences in sounds that would otherwise pass unnoticed.

BOVÉE, A. G.—*French Phonetic Training in the University High School*. Sch. Rev., 1916, pp. 675-679.

THE object of the phonetic training which the student receives is twofold: first, the acquisition of a good pronunciation; secondly, and by no means of lesser importance, the learning of the written values of the various sounds with a view to establishing finally such an exact relation between the spoken and the written word that the sound will very nearly indicate the correct spelling. This second effect of phonetic training has been found to be a very definite aid in vocabulary building. The result is a combination which produces great speed in the acquisition of vocabulary, coupled with unusual accuracy in spelling.

The writer describes in outline the method followed with beginners. This includes consideration of the general characteristics of French pronunciation, *e.g.*, the purity of the vowels, the explosion of the consonants; then

passes on to a vowel chart, and drills pupils in sound production, and the acquisition of vocabulary. All new words are first pronounced; their meanings are demonstrated according to the principles of the direct method, and finally they are spelled by the pupils. The result is an astonishing decrease in mistakes in spelling. This is a very valuable attainment, for it gives speed and accuracy in the acquisition of vocabulary.

HESS, J. A.—*Practical Phonetics for German*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1917, pp. 119-124.

THE only apparatus required for teaching German phonetics is a Viëtor sound chart and a post card edition of Rausch's *Lauttafeln*. Pp. 122-3 indicate how the teacher should use these.

McKENZIE, K.—*The Question of Spanish Pronunciation*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1917, pp. 21-28.

WHAT pronunciation of Spanish ought to be taken as the standard in the schools and colleges of this country was asked of a number of teachers of Spanish. Seven-eighths of the replies received favoured the use of Castilian. The reasons given were: it is the only standard recognized by the Spanish Academy; it is understood everywhere in Spanish America, and is not thought affected when used by a foreigner; it is generally taught in the schools of South America, and is regarded even by those who do not use it as the purest form of the language; Spanish orthography is based on the Castilian pronunciation.

CLARKE, C. C.—*The Phonograph in Modern Language Teaching*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1918, pp. 116-122.

(1) WITH a phonograph we have at our disposal many of the advantages to be obtained from having a native

teacher, including that authoritative quality, both in the form of what is said and the way of pronouncing it, which the best-trained American inevitably lacks.

(2) We can learn or teach a language orally, and can depend on our teacher never to vary and never to tire. The superiority over a human teaching machine is manifest.

(3) On the other hand, the phonograph will not furnish enthusiasm or energy.

(4) Self-instruction alone of this sort is unsatisfactory. The need of someone who already knows the idiom is clearly felt.

(5) For one who has previously made some progress, or for the teacher of a modern language who desires to improve his own use of it, or to keep up his fluency, the case is quite different.

(6) The cause of much of the disappointment felt after using language records in class has been the too great dependence upon them. The longest conceivable series of records, forming a system, cannot present all the syntax of a language, cannot exemplify a large vocabulary, and most clearly cannot offer the variety and animation which a competent instructor must manage to furnish.

(7) The most telling way of employing the records is causing them to be memorized by the pupil so that he can repeat certain portions of the exercise after the record has been run off.

(8) Satisfactory arrangements for preparation of lessons from speech records can seldom be made. We cannot ask each student to incur the expense of providing himself with a machine and a set of records, and the operation of a single machine in the class-room during the regular exercises has proved to be of infinitesimal influence.

(9) For natural imitators the speech record does wonders, but used in analytical fashion it also accomplishes a great deal for pupils who need to be drilled into something like the correct pronunciation of a strange tongue.

(10) When all the cardinal points of pronunciation are firmly fixed, the records will be valuable as examples of general enunciation, although it must not be expected that they will work a miracle which years of residence in a foreign country often fail to work for English-speaking people.

ELLIS, F. A.—*The Place of Phonetics in School French Courses*. Mod. Lang. Teach., 1918, pp. 20-22.

THIS article is an account of the phonetic teaching as practised at the County School for Boys, Dover.

French is not taught at all in the lowest form of this school, but an attempt is made to train the boys to distinguish and analyse sounds in English and to gain control over the speech-organs and the breath. The remainder of the article gives in detail the steps followed in teaching French phonetics.

JONES, D.—*The Use of Experimental Phonetics to the Linguist*. Mod. Lang. Teach., 1918, pp. 125-132.

THE art of speaking a foreign language demands (among other things) an ability to perform all kinds of difficult movements with the tongue and other parts of the speech mechanism.

Information regarding tongue-positions may be ascertained experimentally in different ways:

(1) Palatography, in which use is made of a special kind of artificial palate that shows what parts of the roof of the mouth are touched by the tongue in the production of different speech-sounds.



(2) The shape assumed by the tongue in the articulation of speech-sounds can be measured by lead threads.

(3) The vibration of the vocal chords can be successfully studied by various devices.

There is not the necessity for those who simply want to learn to speak a foreign language to do experiments of this kind. Practical students of languages may and should make use of the results arrived at by specialists in experimental phonetics.

MORENO-LACALLE, J.—*The Teaching of Spanish Pronunciation*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1918, pp. 304-320.

CASTILIAN should be taught exclusively in all our schools. The method generally in use is essentially that of imitation. Few of our pupils realize the great differences existing between Spanish and English in the basis of articulation, duration of sounds, and strength and pitch of the voice; neither are they taught the phonetic relation that exists between the various words in the sentence, nor the relation of one sound to another. Spanish instruction should be placed on a phonetic basis.

The author recommends the following order of procedure: begin by a description of the vocal apparatus; note the difference that exists between the English and the Spanish organic bases, the latter characterized by its tenseness and the former by its laxity; take up the vowel sounds; then diphthongs and triphthongs; consonants; the Spanish alphabet with the ordinary letters; and, finally, syllabification, accentuation, intonation and expression.

CHURCHMAN, PHILIP H.—*Further Notes on French Pronunciation*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1919, pp. 351-367.

ORAL reading involves interpretation of visual symbols,

the production of sounds, and the establishment of a direct connection between the two. The translation of visual signs (letters, vowels, diphthongs, words) into muscular acts is thus a dual process. The article offers suggestions for effective learning of this bipolar process, and gives some introductory practice exercises.

BATEMAN, G. C., and THORNTON, J. E.—*How to Teach French Phonetics*. Cambridge, Heffer, 1921. ix + 91 pp. 90 cents.

INTENDED for class-room practice, the first part teaching the phonetic symbols, the second part being devoted to exercises. The volume contains *Sound-drills*, also sold separately for class use. There are useful notes on "The chief faults to be corrected in those who have learnt French without phonetics".

BOVÉE, A. G.—*Phonetics in the Teaching of Grammar*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1921, pp. 190-196.

AN answer to the criticism that, aside from all question of pronunciation, the study of phonetics is an effective and logical introduction to the study of the French language. The writer answers the criticism by pointing out: first, the value of phonetics in minimizing the difficulties of French orthography; second, the value of phonetics in solving some of the problems of grammar and form changes. Careful phonetic training will reduce spelling difficulties to the point of elimination, for instead of remembering from 8 to 10 letters, the student has only to remember 2 or 4 sounds. The child of fourteen retains the memory of a sound more easily and accurately than he does the image of a written word. Some grammar principles and many form changes are governed by phonetic laws, and a knowledge of these will obviously

minimize the difficulty by offering a practical and rational explanation.

STOCKER, C.—*French Speech-Tunes and the Phonograph*.  
Mod. Lang. Jour., 1921, pp. 267-270.

PHONOGRAPH records for elementary work are of benefit, but their use in the class-room or at home is no guarantee of a good pronunciation on the part of the pupil. The student does not always hear sounds as they are pronounced, and his ear is not trained to detect the difference between the sound given and his own inadequate imitation of it. He must have the criticism of a careful teacher.

One of the first things the foreign language student must learn is to divest his speech of the melodies with which he has been wont to clothe it. The result will be a monotonous utterance, but this is the first step. The acquiring of a new set of speech-tunes is the next.

Many subtleties of French intonation can be acquired by the patient student, but he must have constant ear practice, should hear the same phrases repeated, indicating their melody on paper by means of curved lines, or by musical notes, for future study and comparison. Here the phonograph can render invaluable service to both teacher and student.

TREGAR, E. M.—*The Use of the Gramophone in the Teaching of Modern Languages*. Mod. Lang., 1921, pp. 66-68.

MANY people consider the gramophone is of greatest use for teaching intonation and there its use ends. But it can be of great service in the teaching of phonetics. After teaching some of the French vowel sounds, we let the children hear a record consisting of words containing a certain vowel. The vowel sounds are excellent but the

consonants are almost lost in the vibration of the machinery. (This is not a scientific explanation of the failure in old-style recording to reproduce sibilants.) It is therefore wise that before the pupils repeat the words with the gramophone they should say them after their teacher.

For teachers whose dramatic powers are not equal to their desires, or for those who have not much self-confidence, the gramophone is invaluable. The gramophone, however, is no substitute for the teacher and is only of use to the teacher who is ready to adapt it, as he does all his ideas, to the psychological peculiarities of each class. Children, as a rule, only reproduce the best points of the phonetics or of the most beautiful recitation if the teacher is constantly calling attention to them.

AWTRY, H.—*Phonetics and the Teaching of French*. Mod. Lang., 1923, pp. 61-63.

THE introduction of phonetics instead of providing a means for teaching pronunciation has only made it more difficult, more confusing, and less interesting. At most the pupil should learn to read it, he should never be required to write it himself. The teacher should rely upon repetition and imitation.

DEWEY, G.—*Relative Frequency of English Speech Sounds*.

Harvard Univ. Press, 1923. xii + 148 pp. \$2.70.

A CLASSIFIED quantitative analysis of the commoner words and syllables and every sound of 100,000 words of representative English. Like other word counts it furnishes the linguist with material for comparing languages, and has other multiple uses.

PATTEE, E. B.—*The Phonograph as a Medium of Foreign-Language Instruction*. School Review, 1923, pp. 604-607.



FEW of the public schools can afford the services of a linguist trained abroad. The difficulties of French and Spanish pronunciation are seldom overcome by textbook instruction alone. Yet, fluency in the use of the language and accuracy in pronunciation are expected of the modern language teacher, and must be demonstrated in daily class work if results are to be satisfactory from the standpoint of pupil and patron as well as from the standpoint of the school officials.

The one vehicle of training within the reach of all, and satisfactorily efficient, is the phonograph.

(1) Through records, the most thorough drill on sounds can be secured.

(2) The ambitious teacher can perfect himself beyond criticism, secure self-confidence, and attain fluency in his spare time at minimum expense.

(3) The records serve to rouse the apathetic pupil by their novelty and variety, invigorate an otherwise dull drill lesson, and compel attention to detail and aural perception.

(4) The phonograph may be used in individual or group study outside of class hours, and in assisting in making up back work and correcting faulty pronunciation. Many members of the class who cannot otherwise be persuaded to practise pronunciation will voluntarily hum or sing snatches of the songs outside of class.

It should be observed that the value of instruction with the aid of a phonograph depends on the recognition of its possibilities as a standard class drill rather than as an amusement. No work should be allowed to become dull from overconcentration or insufficient preparation on the part of the teacher. A list of records which have proved practicable for class-room work is appended.

STOCKTON, C. E.—*The Gramophone in Modern Language Teaching*. Mod. Lang., 1923, pp. 40-41.

GRAMOPHONE records are of little service for studying and perfecting the pronunciation of single sounds and words. This is better done by a teacher with an adequate knowledge of phonetics. But records can help the pupil enormously in the study and imitation of sentence intonation.

A still more important reason for using gramophone records is the vital necessity of cultivating aesthetic appreciation of foreign verse and prose. All teachers can help a pupil to acquire correct pronunciation and even right intonation, but very few can render a poem or piece of prose as the great artists of the Théâtre Français do, and it is the gramophone which makes it possible for our pupils to have such supreme experiences.

TILNEY, A. G.—*Training People to Listen: Auditory Recognition in Language Work*. Mod. Lang., 1923, pp. 18-23.

THERE is a definite relationship between the way in which things are said, and the way in which they are heard and remembered. The writer suggests several ways in which the auditory recognition of words can be improved:

- (1) By reading aloud rapidly.
- (2) The use of colloquial French, as it is actually and naturally spoken,—with varying degrees of intensity or loudness, rapidly and slowly, distinctly and indistinctly enunciated, with varying vocabulary.
- (3) Just as the reader learns to pick out the most significant letters, and bases his visual recognition of words on these, so the listener must pick out certain sounds that are the auditory cues to the word. As far as

the reviewer knows, the isolation of "key" sounds in words has nowhere been attempted in any systematic way.

PLANT, J.—*Das Gramophon im Dienste des neusprachlichen Unterrichts*. Neueren Sprachen, 1926, pp. 439-442.

POINTS out among other things its usefulness in teaching proper intonation. Records should not be played until the text has been studied by the pupils. Only in the upper forms should unfamiliar selections be used.

STOCKER, C.—*The Speech Tune of Minor Enumeration. A Study in French Tonetics*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1924, pp. 107-114; 1926, pp. 471-481.

THERE is an endless variety of speech-tunes. Some of them are peculiar to regions, some to individuals, and some to certain classes of society, but there are others which are general and are heard frequently enough to be noted, classified and acquired by the student of a foreign language. To acquire a correct intonation it is not sufficient to study a speech-tune through diagrams or musical notations. It is necessary to become acquainted with the species in its natural habitat, among Frenchmen. The purpose of such articles as these is to point out the existence of such speech-tunes and the necessity for a musical study of language if one would master what is known as a French accent. Dot diagrams or tonetic transcriptions such as are used by H. Klinghardt and Harold Palmer in their works on intonation are supplemented by musical notations. The notations, given as a rough indication of pitch, are meant only for the speaking voice.

BARKER, M. L.—*A Handbook of German Intonation, for University Students*. Cambridge, Heffer, 1925. x + 102 pp. \$1.25.

RECORDS the fundamental principles, and illustrates the trend of German intonation in continuous texts, transcribed from actual speech.

BOND, O. F.—*The Sounds of French, an Elementary Phonetic Manual*. University of Chicago Press, 1925. vii + 60 pp. \$1.25.

THIS excellent manual is mentioned here more particularly because exercises 1-34 have been recorded by the Student Educational Records, Lakewood, N.J., publishers also of records for the Fraser and Squair *Complete French Grammar*, and Hills and Ford's *Spanish Grammar*. The set of five double-disk records retails for \$12.00, including album and carriage. The speaker is a native Frenchman, M. Huguenin.

—Attention may be directed here to Otto Sperling's extensive catalogue (published at Eberhardstrasse, 10, Stuttgart) of phonographic records. It gives bibliographical references for the use of the gramophone in the class-room, and lists of records in all the modern languages including those prepared by Pathé (e.g., *Le Cid*, *Le malade imaginaire*, short poems, prose selections, etc.).

MILLET, A.—*L'Oreille et les Sons du Langage*. Paris, Vrin, 1926. 127 pp. \$1.55.

AN exposition of the work of Abbé Rousselot, and is concerned with the relationships of auditory functioning and the sounds of a language. The problems discussed are the audibility of various sounds, perceptual awareness of sounds, and the pedagogical implications.—A similar analysis by the same author appears in *L'enseignement secondaire au Canada*, 1924-1925, pp. 224-230.



SPARKMAN, C. F.—*The Value of Phonetics in Teaching a Foreign Language*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1926, pp. 227-235.

A GOOD pronunciation cannot be learned by mere imitation, because we hear the foreign sounds only in terms of native language sounds. Habits of pronunciation are largely muscular habits, and it is very difficult to change any muscular habit of long standing. To do so requires first an analysis and later a synthesis of the new speech sounds, with abundant drill. The practice, though not the theory, of phonetics is indispensable. Pronunciation must be mechanically presented to students, and it should be a preliminary to the actual study of the language.

*Transcription phonétique et translittération, Propositions établies par la Conférence tenue à Copenhague en avril, 1925*. Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1926. 35 pp. 50 cents.

RECOMMENDATIONS of an international conference of phoneticians (Jespersen, Jones, Vendryes, etc.) on a system of transliteration in Latin characters that is likely to be accepted as a standard.

BRANDIN, L. M., JEAFFRESON, J. W., MADAME BRANDIN.  
—*Foylophone French Course*. London, Foylophone, 1927. xxxii + 350 pp. \$1.75.

THE course is intended to be sufficiently comprehensive for the ordinary needs of business, travel, and social intercourse, ensuring at the same time a grammatical grounding in colloquial French. Conversational records, made by the new electrical process, accompany the course. The records should be useful for self-tuition as well as for supplementary class-work. In the lessons (26) the orthographic text is accompanied by a phonetic tran-

scription. The lessons are all in dialogue form. The vocabulary is limited to words of everyday occurrence, but is too extensive for beginners. For the teaching of grammar the deductive method is used. The paradigms of verbs are taught in complete sentences.

—There is another gramophone course, not seen by the reviewers: *His Master's Voice Gramophone Records*, compiled by E. M. Stéphan and Daniel Jones: The Gramophone Co., Oxford St., London, 1927. The course comprises 15 double-sided records, text-book and key-book. Price £4. 4s.: records separately, 4s. 6d. (See also above p. 244.)

BRUNEAU, C.—*Manuel de phonétique*. Nancy, Berger-Levrault, 1927. xvii + 133 pp. 35 cents.

THE author is in charge of the course for foreigners at the University of Nancy, and discusses French pronunciation in the light of his experience with their difficulties. Numerous examples are given for practice. An index of words with phonetic transcription makes the work a useful reference manual for correct pronunciation.

GATES, A. I.—*Studies of Phonetic Training in Beginning Reading*. J. Educ. Psych., 1927, pp. 217-226

THE article reports two experiments in which the reading performances of children trained by a good phonetic method and by a non-phonetic method are compared. The pupils were drawn from a private and a public school. The groups were paired in chronological and mental age, I.Q., and on initial reading tests. The non-phonetic training consisted of exercises in reading to secure thought and comprehension and training in accurate discrimination of words and phrases. Numerous criteria were used twice during the practice period,

including comprehension of paragraph reading and pronunciation of new words and phonograms, and in almost all the bases used, the non-phonetic method was as good as, or slightly superior to, the phonetic. This does not mean that phonetics as a system should be immediately abandoned, but that investigations should reveal those phonetic procedures, if any, that are of value. Syllabification of words should be explicitly taught.

NYROP, K.—*Spoken French, A Phonetic Manual*. Cambridge, Heffer, 1927. vi + 243 pp. \$1.90.

A PRACTICAL treatment of present-day French pronunciation with interesting historical and comparative discussions and copious examples that can be used for drill purposes. In an appendix there is a phonetic transcription of *La chèvre de monsieur Seguin*.

#### (f) Reading

MARCEL, C.—*The Study of Languages brought back to its true principles, or the art of thinking in a foreign language*. New York, 1869 (First ed. in French, 1867). xi + 228 pp.

By this method the ear is trained before the pupil attempts to speak. The ultimate aim is to give the student command of the language, whether spoken or written, through reading, without the medium of translation or grammar. Books, as models of expression, are preferable to conversation; they present a richer stock of words, and a style generally more correct and less trivial than that of conversation, but the impressions made through the organs of sight are more vivid and more lasting than those which are made through the organs of hearing. In point of usefulness, writing a foreign language comes last, and reason suggests that what is least needed should be

learned last. The order to be followed in the study of a foreign language is, therefore: reading, hearing, speaking, writing.

Grammar affords no assistance in reading; it does not explain the meaning of phrases or words, which is the only difficulty encountered in learning to read a foreign language. *Direct reading*, by which the written expression, as in the native idiom, directly conveys the thought, is the end to be attained (a method recently revived by Bond; see p. 98). *Indirect reading*, by which the idea is apprehended through the medium of the mother tongue, that is, by translation, is only an introduction to direct reading. Let there be no parsing, no grammatical comment on the language: all that the student requires is to advance rapidly in the comprehension of the text in hand, so that he may become acquainted with a large number of words and phrases.

The first books to be used should treat of familiar subjects and be written in an easy style. Works written in the most elegant or classical style create the necessity of resorting to preparatory exercises, contrary to the principle of gradation. The reading of the foreign text may be commenced at the outset by means of a literal translation. With the aid of a dictionary students hardly translate or translate badly, twenty-five or thirty lines a day,—about a volume in the course of a year; whereas twenty-five or thirty volumes, at least, should be read to secure the complete acquisition of the art of reading. It is especially on the second perusal of a book or passage that the student must make his *début* in direct reading.

Methods of teaching hitherto followed leave the organ of hearing in complete inaction, or only exercise it on detached words and phrases. In the Marcel method the teacher reads extensively to the pupils.



The habit of receiving ideas directly from the words, written or spoken, lays the foundation for rapidly acquiring the faculty of expressing them spontaneously. Speaking is best learned by model phrases or sentences (what Palmer now calls substitution exercises; the method was also advocated by Jacotot) with practice on variations. By learning a phrase, the student exercises his memory; but, by constructing them himself, he exercises his judgment. Let a student, for instance, apply the French expression *perdre quelqu'un de vue* to a sufficient number of phrases to render the construction habitual and give him a language sense. The power of expression will arise from the frequency and diversity of their application.

Writing, like speaking, is learned by imitating models, not by doing exercises compiled for the avowed object of applying rules.

BERGER, G. O.—*Ueber den Einfluss der Uebung auf geistige Vorgänge*. Phil. Stud. (Wundt), 1889. Vol. v, pp. 170-178.

AN investigation into the influence of practice in reading Latin and German with German pupils in a preparatory school, and in a gymnasium class. Two things were observed: the rate of reading, growth of which appears in the practice curve presented, and span of reading. Berger reports that children in the preparatory school read Latin by syllables, those a little more advanced read by words, and the oldest read phrases and sentences.

—For a more recent experiment see G. T. Buswell's *A Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Foreign Languages* (Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, Vol. II, New York, Macmillan, 1927), with the general conclusion: "In the case of Latin, progress is slower and a greater number of

years is required to attain a given degree of maturity in reading than in the case of French, German, and Spanish."

CATTEL, J. MCK.—*Ueber die Zeit der Erkennung und Benennung, etc.* Phil. Stud (Wundt), 1888, pp. 635 ff.

AN investigation into the time required for the perception of letters and words. The writer employed a tachistoscope and took exact time measurements. He concludes:

(1) The maximal rapidity with which a word can be read when given in a context varies directly with the subject's knowledge of the language to which the word belongs.

(2) If the words do not form sentences, and the letters do not form words, the time required for reading them is approximately doubled.

(3) The time required for the perception of a letter is very little shorter than that required for the perception of a word.

(4) The less familiar a word is, the smaller is the difference in the amount of time required for reading it backwards and forwards.

HAMILTON, FRANCIS M.—*The Perceptual Factors in Reading.* Arch. of Psych., 1907, No. 9.

A STUDY of the influence of context on speed and accuracy of word recognition. In the first experiment, the rate of reading consonants, miscellaneous words and simple sentences was determined. In the second part the smaller units were presented with varying amounts of context, and the speed and accuracy of perception again determined. Persons acting as subjects ranged from nine years to maturity. Paragraph, sentence and even phrase contexts aided word perception in every instance.

CLARAHAN, M. M.—*An Experimental Study of Methods of Teaching High School German*. Educational Series, University of Missouri, Vol. 1, No. 6, 1913. 31 pp.

A COMPARISON of results obtained by an experiment in the grammar and reading methods in first year German classes, in which it is shown that the reading method more nearly realizes the aims of first year work. An attempt was made to control variable factors, but the experiment should be repeated with larger numbers and more modern and precise methods of control. The study is interesting as one of the earliest objective experiments on language teaching methods.

ENG, H.—*Abstrakte Begriffe im Sprechen und Denken des Kindes*. Zsch. f. Angew. Psychol., 1914.

WORKING with children 10 to 14 years of age, the author studied the abstract concepts, giving attention to the comprehension of abstract words in isolation and in context. She found that if a child did not know a word in isolation, he was not likely to be helped much when he got it in context, though the influence of context increased slightly with the child's age.

MÉRAS, ALBERT A.—*Possibilities in a Reading Lesson*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1916, Vol. 1, pp. 10-17.

EVERY reading lesson should be the medium for vocabulary training, practice in hearing, seeing and pronouncing words, and learning a few essential points in grammar. Many specific suggestions are made for the conduct of a reading lesson. Translation into English should be reduced to a minimum.

WHITNEY, MARIAN R.—*The Place of Reading in the Modern Language Course*. Educational Review, 1916, Vol. 51, pp. 189-197.

To gain fluency in speech is a matter requiring much time; to maintain it requires constant practice. The acquisition of ease in reading the language should be the first aim of our instruction. Reading must be differentiated from translation. Older pupils studying a foreign language have a certain advantage over children learning their own, for they already have ideas and concepts in mind: they need only to acquire new symbols for objects and thoughts with which they are already familiar. Oral work does not take time from reading; it is the best possible means of helping the pupil to read rapidly and easily.

O'BRIEN, J. A.—*Training in Perception as a Means of Accelerating the Silent Reading Rate*. J. Educ. Psy., 1920, pp. 402-417.

CITES the findings of Dodge that we do not need to see all the words in reading a familiar language words seen marginally or peripherally as the eye rests at fixation points are sufficient to give "meaning premonitions" that enable us to speed up the process of reading. Dodge pointed out that these premonitions are absent in the reading by a beginner of a foreign language. This accounts for the much slower rate. O'Brien draws attention to the fact that  $\frac{12}{13}$ ths or even  $\frac{23}{24}$ ths of the total reading time is spent on fixations, hence reduction of reading time must come by way of reducing perceptual processes that occur in fixation. This we may do by widening the visual span, thus requiring fewer fixations, or by speeding up the perception, *i.e.*, by spending less time on fixations. Normally we function at much below the optimum in both processes.

—West shows the extraordinary results obtained from the training of perception or reading skill. See his *Bilingualism*, 1926 (reviewed p. 215).



DEIHL, J. D.—*Junior High School Modern Foreign Language Study in the Light of Psychological Principles of Reading*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1922, pp. 67-74.

APPROXIMATELY three-fourths of our time and effort with young pupils should be devoted to enabling them to *read* silently the foreign language with the greatest possible fluency. As aids to this and as a foundation for possible later development of ability to write and speak fluently, twenty-five per cent. of the time should be spent on pronunciation and phonic analysis, spelling and grammar fundamentals.

What is the psychologically correct order and method of approach to a modern foreign language for the average American child of 12 or 13 years of age? The ideal situation would be to begin foreign language reading with material so simple that not lines, but pages, might be covered in a day's work. It is extremely important from the first to create a feeling of mastery and success.

Foreign language work will never be the success it should be until teachers realize that there must be two types of reading carried on side by side, one primarily for purposes of drill on form and pronunciation, the other for extensive training in thought-gathering and judgment-forming.

The fundamental method of handling this silent reading ought to be the oral and written reproduction method, at first exclusively in English, gradually working over into the foreign tongue as ability to handle the foreign sounds increases.

The oral side of modern language instruction has been over-emphasized. There should not be over-emphasis on grammar instruction. Let examples accumulate during the extensive reading, and classify and arrange such

material when its bulk begins to get burdensome in its disconnected form to the pupils themselves.

Pupils will translate. No one can keep from it at times. As in pronunciation then, teach how to do it correctly, but subordinate it to silent reading for content.

JUDD, C. H., and BUSWELL, G. T.—*Silent Reading, A Study of the Various Types*. Supp. Educ. Mon., No. 23, 1922. The University of Chicago Press. 100 pp. \$1.60.

THIS monograph is a study of some of the more complex forms of reading with major emphasis on silent reading. The first ninety pages discuss, with illustrative plates, the influence of various factors on the nature of silent reading. The rate and regularity of silent reading vary with the subject matter read, purpose of reading, and instructions given to readers.

The second section reports, again with plates, the results of an investigation into the reading of Latin and French by high school pupils in seven Chicago high schools. Passages were specially prepared of three general types: (a) in English only, (b) mixed passages containing in some instances French words and phrases, in other instances Latin words and phrases, and (c) pure French or Latin passages.

The results show that in no case does a third year student of the best grade in seven high schools in and around Chicago read Latin. Most of the pupils who have had a corresponding amount of French show characteristic symptoms of reading, although their reading is of the laboured type. The reason is that Latin students are not trained to read. They are only trained to look at words.

It would be less harmful to the school if Latin could

be isolated and treated in terms of its own decline. But under existing conditions it is a source of contagion to the whole school. Latin dominates all of the literary subjects, and by its methods contaminates the procedure in every class where its influence is felt. The French teachers may not yet be perfect in their art, but the French students show that they are able to read, and that they are interested in the story told in the French words.

—*The Measurement of Silent Reading*, by M. A. Burgess, New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1921, is an excellent introductory manual on reading scales (for English) and methods of scoring results.

PROKOSCH, E.—*Reading Knowledge by Self-Instruction*.  
Mod. Lang. Jour., 1922, pp. 446-452.

THE writer outlines a course of study by which an individual student, working without a teacher, should be able to get a reading knowledge of German. He adopts the following principles as fundamental:

(1) Reading knowledge requires a fluent pronunciation as a primary condition. Correctness is not an intrinsic requisite, but fluency is indispensable.

(2) Grammar should not interfere with the first steps in reading. In the later stages a minimum of formal grammar must be studied semi-inductively, but at all times it ought to stay modestly in the background.

(3) Translation into English is no help, but a most vicious obstacle in learning to read.

(4) In the acquisition of the passive vocabulary, the context must be the primary means, and vocabularies and dictionaries will have to be used as a last resort. Word lists for memorizing are of value only for certain

purposes, such as an extensive acquaintance with the technical terms of the student's scientific specialty.

The article contains an outline of the course, and texts to be read.

THALHOFER, F.—*Die Jugendlektüre, Geschichtliches und Grundsätzliches*. Paderborn, Schöningh, 1924, (1925 2te Auflage). xiii + 168 pp. 80 cents.

THIS work deals exclusively with German books (with the exception of a few foreign classics in translation), and will be found useful especially for the well-classified list of 367 children's books (with prices), journals, and plays. There is an extensive bibliography.

PATTERSON, S. H.—*The Technique of the Reading Lesson in Modern Languages*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1925, pp. 151-157.

THE immediate objectives of a reading lesson in secondary classes are: correct pronunciation and inflection, ability to get the thought from the printed page, increased vocabulary, and increased power of expression.

Some adjustments must be made in method for bright and dull students. The writer offers some suggestions as to how this adaptation should be made. With bright pupils he would avoid emphasis on oral reading, dispense with translation, pay much attention to increasing vocabulary, would require some supplementary reading, and much sight reading. In general these pupils should aim at power of expression with varied material. For the dull group he suggests that reading be stressed, translation used at the beginning and always for difficult passages; the question and answer method should be kept especially for beginners; a good deal of vocabulary drill should be included, but it should be based on reading



matter, and the drills should be short and frequent; no supplementary reading should be required. In general the aim should be to form simple language skills, and to train in silent reading of simple material.

BOND, O. F.—*Reading for Language Power*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1926, pp. 411-426.

IN addition to prescribed reading, students are assigned various amounts of additional "extensive" reading, varying according to ability of the student and his maturity in language work. This reading is tested by a weekly conference. Such practice materially reduces the percentage of failures and increases the percentage of honour students. Various other data are interpreted as indicating a more permanent interest and more language "power".

—See p. 248, and a chapter on Two American Experiments, in the report of the Canadian Committee, Vol. 1.

FANCIULLI, G. E. MONACI, E.—*La letteratura per l'Infanzia*. Torino, Soc. Ed. Internazionale, 1926. 354 pp. \$1.20.

THE first book written expressly for children was Basile's *Cunto de li cunti* (Naples, 1634), prior to which they read edifying works like Aesop's *Fables*, *Gesta Romanorum*, lives of saints, histories, the ancient classics, and other works composed primarily for adults. (Locke remarks about the fables of Aesop, "the only book almost that I know fit for children.") Basile's collection represents an isolated phenomenon in Italy, and primacy in the production of extra-scholastic children's books really belongs to France (D'Aulnoy, Perrault, de Genlis, Verne, Daudet, Malot), followed by England (nursery rhymes, ballads, *Robinson Crusoe*, *Gulliver's Travels*, Dickens, Burnett, Carroll, Barrie, Kipling; and in America, Alcott, Mark

Twain), Germany (Baron Münchhausen, Hoffmann, the Grimms, Hauff), northern countries (Anderson, Lagerlöf), and Russia. A chapter on Spain (*Lazarillo de Tormes*, *Don Quijote*, *Gil Blas*, ballads, Benavente's plays for children) is promised for a later edition, which ought also to include Switzerland and the Orient. The work is of special interest for Italian, but contains much useful information for those who seek material proven to be of interest to children.

JORDAN, A. M.—*Children's Interests in Reading*. Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina Press, 1926 (2nd edition). 103 pp. \$1.50.

THE conclusions are based on a census of high school pupils' preferences in reading. Lists are given of books popular with the two sexes between the years 11 and 18. Juvenile fiction and adventure (*not* fairy stories, history, biography, science, travel, humour, poetry—excepting *The Merchant of Venice* and *The Lady of the Lake*) are most popular. As our classes are coeducational, it is interesting to note the books that appeal to both boys and girls. For application in the choice of modern language texts consideration would have to be given to vocabulary, or its reduction after the manner of West's experiments.

—For further studies of children's taste in reading, see Huey, E. B., *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading*, New York, Macmillan, 1924 (reprint of edition of 1908); Uhl, W. L., *The Materials of Reading*, New York, Silver, Burdett, 1924, etc.; a convenient summary is reprinted below (p. 263) from West.

WEST, M. & BANERJEE, H.—*Evanesence in Reading*. Indian J. Psych., 1926, 1, pp. 200-202.

By evanesence is meant the disappearance of ideas

gathered in reading in the interval between the reading and the review. The authors accept the phenomenon of inner speech, "as we read we tend to express the ideas in words mentally", and they propose that evanescence should be marked in the case of reading a foreign language. They compared the evanescence found with Bengali students reading the vernacular and English and found that it was most marked in the case of English. This they attribute to the difficulty the students had in expressing the ideas they formed, sub-vocally, in the foreign language.

BLACKHURST, J. H.—*Investigations in the Hygiene of Reading*. Baltimore, Warwick and York, 1927. 63 pp. \$1.40.

A SUMMARY of experimental work done by such workers as Javal, Cattell, Sanford, Dearborn, Rothlein, Gilliland, the British Association for the Advancement of Science, and the American School Hygiene Association, comprises the introduction to this book. The author then reports his own experimental results, with young children, on four phases of typography,—size of type, length of line, leading, and regularity of margin. 18-point or 24-point type is better than smaller type; a line should be approximately 100 mm. long; 1-point leading is sufficient, at least for children above grade 2. Rather unexpectedly, irregularity of margins may be an advantage, rather than the contrary.

BOOK, W. F.—*How Well College Students Can Read*. Sch. & Soc., 1927, pp. 242-248.

REPORTS a study of several hundred freshmen and upper classmen with two tests of silent reading (English). Among the more important findings are: a wide range

of ability was found, the best reader being over seven times as efficient as the poorest, although both ranked at the same level on the intelligence test; the ranges in rate and accuracy combined were from 5 to 95 per cent. for boys and 15 to 90 per cent. for girls; reading ability has a significant relation to success in college studies; a few hours spent on instruction in reading resulted in over a hundred per cent. improvement in one group of students.

RUSSELL, G. O.—*Silent Reading*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1925, pp. 459-468.

THERE are two functions in silent reading about the development of which the modern language teacher is concerned: the difficulty of the passage the pupil can understand, and the speed at which a pupil can read understandingly. Both of these measures are relative, rather than absolute. This article reports the construction and standardization of a scale or test for the second function.

BUSWELL, G. T.—*A Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Foreign Languages*. New York, Macmillan, 1927 (Vol. II of the Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages).

ANALYSES scientifically, as determined by a laboratory study of reading ability, the best age for beginning a foreign language, the effect of different methods of progress made by students in French and German, and an examination of the process of reading French, German, Spanish and Latin.

The conclusions are as follows:

(1) "Judging from the maturity of a student's fundamental reading habits which result from two years of French, there is no notable difference between students



who begin the study<sup>1</sup> of the language in high school and students who begin at the college level. On the same basis of judgment, children who begin the language in the elementary grades fall very much below the level of maturity of the high-school and college students at the end of two years.

(2) The method of teaching a foreign language has a striking effect upon the reading habits of students. The maturity in reading which results from two years of study is decidedly greater with students taught by a direct method<sup>1</sup> than with students taught by an indirect translation method.

(3) During equal periods of time, approximately equal degrees of maturity are reached in the study of French, German, and Spanish when these languages are taught by similar methods and under similar conditions.

(4) In no case did the median student in a second-year group approach closely the maturity of reading habits exhibited by the expert groups of readers.

German is frequently said to be a more difficult language to read than French or Spanish. The results obtained in this study would lead one to minimize any such differences.

Two years of studying Latin produced less mature reading habits than in the case of French and German. The explanation of this fact may be that the language is inherently more difficult or that the experiment in the direct reading method of teaching has simply not proceeded far enough to be as efficient as in the case of French and German where it has been tried longer."

WEST, M.—*The Construction of Reading Material for Teaching a Foreign Language*. Dacca University,

<sup>1</sup>For the meaning of "direct method" as used here, see page 248

Bulletin, No. XIII, Oxford University Press, 1927.  
32 pp.

THIS is a useful supplement to the same author's *Bilingualism* (see p. 215), and explains the method used in compiling his series of *New Method Readers for Teaching English Reading to Foreign Children* (Longmans, Green & Co.). In this series, Reader IA (Primer) teaches the alphabet and 222 words, Reader IB a further 236 words, the nine Readers providing a total of 3,500 of the most useful words, as determined by word counts. When the pupil comes to the simplified edition of *Robinson Crusoe*, he is informed that he knows all the words, except "gun, Friday, fire a gun", the meanings of which are made clear by illustrations. A series in French is under construction, and suggestions for a series in German, Italian, Spanish and other languages have been received.

The following quotations challenge attention:

"The mother-tongue is irreplaceable in respect of the spiritual things of life, and its neglect must have most serious consequences on the emotional development of a people. We have analysed the need felt by these peoples for a major language, and have found that their essential need is to be able to read the language as a source of knowledge. Such passive use of a language is far easier to attain than an active use; it is also the natural and most effective preparation for subsequent study of the active use. On these grounds we have advocated that the teaching of reading should be emphasized in the first stage of teaching a major foreign language in schools.

In these reading-books there are sixty running words of text for every new word introduced.

It may effect an economy of time to teach some parts of the French regular verbs systematically at an early point in the course:—such, at least, was my decision in

designing the French series of readers. But there can be no justification for introducing a word (*e.g. Impératrice*,—30,000th) out of its order in the Word-frequency List merely to illustrate a point of grammar which will not be needed until later. The worst offenders of all in lumbering up a child's vocabulary with words of low frequency are the grammar books:—how many of the words in the Latin Gender Rhymes did we ever use in our Latin proses, or ever meet in our reading?

The results of this inquiry, supplemented by Terman & Lima, are shown below:

- Age 8. Fairy tales are a safe choice at this age; also stories of "Children in other Lands."
- Age 9. Fairy tales of a more complex type may be used; but the interest in fairy tales is now fading. Stories of the child's own environment, *e.g., A Visit to the Fair*, and tales of Boy Scouts are more popular.
- Age 10. Fairy tales are now definitely out of favour. Stories of adventure and travel are preferred. There is some interest in mechanical inventions.
- Age 11. Henty's books and books of the same type are now popular; also animal stories.
- Age 12. School stories are first commonly mentioned at this age (though Terman puts them at age 11). Biographies are popular. Detective and mystery stories are much favoured.
- Age 13. Much the same as ages 11 and 12. Adventure stories are of the more complex type, *e.g. King Solomon's Mines*. Matter about hobbies and "The Successful Inventor" plot are popular.
- Age 14. Jungle stories, and The Wilds may safely be placed here. The taste of the children is very

varied now, and all the ordinary 'Books for Boys' are mentioned."

(g) *Translation*

ELFSTRAND, D.—*Translation into the Mother Tongue in Modern Language Teaching*. Mod. Lang., 1922, pp. 82-87.

WHAT is meant by ability to read, and what method, what practice, leads to the achievement of that end? Traditionally, ability to translate is identified with the ability to read. The writer argues that translation is an exercise that aims exclusively at form. Pupils often translate page after page, and yet when they have done prove to have a very muddled and defective idea of what they have read. The direct method maintains that language is learnt most naturally through oral use or speech, and arrives at the conclusion that conversational exercises are the natural preparation for reading exercises.

PRICE, WM. R., THOMPSON, H. G., RICHARDS, E. G.—*Translation into English*. Sch. and Soc., 1926, pp. 51-56.

REPORTS a study of the quality of English written in translation of French and Latin by fourth year students in New York State high schools. The translations were examined by English teachers. Out of 399 translations of French, 371 students or 92.9% were considered unsatisfactory; only 28 or 7.1% were written in acceptable English. None were of outstanding merit. This failure to translate acceptably may be as much the fault of the English teacher as of the French teacher. A study of the particular weaknesses in the French translations shows five major faults: a restricted English vocabulary, inability to spell English words accurately, failure to



punctuate for clearness, incomplete sentence structure, inability to reproduce the thought in the French passage, —evidently because of a lack of understanding of the French words and idioms. A study of the translations indicates that these students did not have a sufficient command of the technique of English expression.

Unless English teachers stress the use of accurate English and unless French and Latin teachers require such English to be used in translation, it will be futile to look for commendable translation of sight passages. Foreign language teachers are too often satisfied with transliteration or paraphrase. All translation should give an exact rendition of the thought of the passage in acceptable English.

(h) *Vocabulary*

THORNDIKE, E. L.—*Repetition vs. Recall in Memorizing Vocabularies*. J. Educ. Psy. 1914, p. 596.

TWENTY-EIGHT adult students learned four sets of paired associates, twenty pairs to a set. The first and third were learned by reading, then covering first member of the pair, and attempting to recall the associate. Re-reading continued until the set was completely learned. The second and fourth series were learned by reading and re-reading without attempted recall. The vocabulary of the former series consisted of German-English words, of the latter, nonsense syllables and English. Time records were taken. For eleven students there was no demonstrable superiority in the method involving recall.

WALTER, MAX.—*Aneignung und Verarbeitung des Wortschatzes im neusprachlichen Unterricht*. Marburg, Elwert, 1914 (2nd ed.). 69 pp. 45 cents.

THE translation method depends on the memorizing of

lists of disconnected words. New words must be learned in their context, and associated with action, objects, blackboard drawings, or, impressed on the mind by restatement in the foreign language. The mother tongue should be used only in case of necessity. Occasionally the material read is reviewed and the vocabulary grouped according to subject-matter. Active vocabulary must be kept alive by constant oral practice, and passive vocabulary extended by diligent reading. Helpful practical suggestions are made by the author.

—See also under Aims for other works by Walter.

GRINSTEAD, W. J.—*An Experiment in the Learning of Foreign Words*. J. Educ. Psych., 1915, vi, pp. 242-245.

ONE subject (the writer) learned German words in two ways: (a) Reading to get the meaning and looking up unknown words in a dictionary as encountered, (b) Looking up in a dictionary unknown words encountered in a formal list. Within two hours, and again after twenty-four hours a check was made on the accuracy of knowledge of the meaning of the new words. The lists were short, but the results unambiguous. For both immediate and delayed tests the context method was superior to the list method, 3% for the former, and 8.8% for the latter. Further, when he was not sure of the meaning of a word, and guessed, he guessed correctly a larger number of words met with in context than words learned in lists. The experiment is interpreted by the author as decidedly favourable to the text-and-dictionary method of enlarging one's vocabulary in a foreign language.

SUTHERLAND, W. A.—*Grimm's Law and Its Relation to the Study of Foreign Languages in High Schools*. Educ., 1916-17, pp. 44-50.

VOCABULARY is the most difficult problem encountered

by the student in the acquisition of either a superficial or profound knowledge of any foreign language. Grimm's law is of inestimable value in learning a vocabulary. The law says, for example, that every *d* of the original language becomes *t* in English and that *t* becomes *th*. Therefore when we come to a word like *dentis* in Latin, we have nearly the whole root of the English word before us, and it is no trouble to remember that it means *tooth*. This is very simple compared with memorizing lists of hundreds of words. While the law with all of its modifications may be quite involved, the core, which deals with practically all cases, is exceedingly simple, and can be mastered very easily by any child of ten years.

MAGNI, J. A.—*Vocabularies*. Ped. Sem., 1919, pp. 209-233.

PREVIOUS investigators have reported the average vocabulary of adult persons of fair intelligence to be 3,000 to 4,000 words. Actual word counts have demonstrated that children in the second grade have an average vocabulary of 4,480 words, and that this has increased to 12,000 in the 8th grade and 20,000 with college students. Great individual differences exist at each age. Children of four years have an average vocabulary of 400 to 500 words. Girls seem to surpass boys up to the 6th year, but boys thereafter seem to excel.

WEIGEL, JOHN C.—*The Acquisition of a Vocabulary*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1919, pp. 339-360.

MUCH of the conflict over vocabulary arises from the fact that the advocates of the three standard methods of teaching, *viz.*, the grammar-translation method, the natural method, and the direct method, have entirely different backgrounds for their arguments. The grammar-trans-

lation advocate means by an active vocabulary the one the student uses in composition; the direct-method advocate considers the active vocabulary to include a great number of words the subject can speak, even if he cannot write them.

The first year's work is, or should be, largely the acquisition of a vocabulary. This does not mean the learning of isolated words,—words should be learned in sentences.

Argues that the foreign language should from very early be the medium of instruction, on the ground that the two languages represent two separate sets of habits and that it is wise to avoid the stronger habit until the weaker one is formed. Offers no very specific suggestions as to how vocabulary can be increased.

(1) The first year is of primal importance in laying the basis for the acquisition of a vocabulary.

(2) Experimental data are not yet at hand as to what an ideal vocabulary in the first year should be. But our logic tells us that the book containing the greatest amount of repetition is the preferable one.

(3) The student must learn the language in terms of itself. Object teaching may concern itself with connecting the word with an object thus laying emphasis on the noun; or it may connect the new foreign symbol with a series of associated actions, thus laying emphasis on the verb.

MURET, G.—*L'Acquisition du vocabulaire allemand par l'étude des poésies*. Rev. de l'enseign. des lang. viv., 1923, pp. 302-304.

STUDENTS of the upper grades show a small passive vocabulary and an almost negligible active vocabulary. To remedy this lack, reading is recommended. But to read with enjoyment one must know the words.



The sources of vocabulary are groups of words according to sense (human body, wearing apparel, etc.) which the students learn first. Next come words and expressions learned in conjunction with grammar (verbs, etc.). A third contingent includes words from texts learned by heart and particularly poetry.

Words and expressions contained in poetry learned by heart ought to be fixed best of all in the student's memory. But experience shows that words contained in poetry learned by heart conglomerate themselves into a compact mass and cannot be dissociated for the construction of new sentences.

The writer proposes that after the explanation of a piece of poetry words to be retained should be isolated, a distinction being made between the words one is to "know" and those one is to "use".

WADEPUHL, WALTER.—*A Standardized Vocabulary for Elementary German*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1923, pp. 23-30.

THE writer when teaching third semester college German found his students very poorly prepared. The difficulty was due not so much to lack of grammar as to uniform vocabulary. An investigation of the vocabulary used in the twenty-three most frequently used grammars showed a total vocabulary of 3500 words, but also showed that only 227 words were common to all. This is entirely too small a number of "fundamental" words, and a standardized vocabulary with at least 750 fundamental words must be used in all texts. The writer's investigation has enabled him to present such a word list, in order of frequency of usage, that is more up-to-date than those of Wheelock, Méras or Bierwith.

—Attention is called here to the German word list

published by the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, New York, The Macmillan Co., 1928. It is a reduction of Kaeding's *Häufigkeitswörterbuch*, prepared by Professors Morgan and Henmon.

JAMIESON, E. I.—*A Standardized Vocabulary for Elementary Spanish*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1924, pp. 325-333. This article reports the results of an examination of vocabularies found in ten grammars. The shortest contained 1050, and the longest, 3432 words, exclusive of grammatical terms, proper names, articles, numerals and pronouns. Only 249 words are common to the ten grammars, whereas the total number of different words is 4488.

A word list should contain two lists—one arranged alphabetically, and the other in logical groups. Reference is made to those already available,—Méras and Roth's *Pequeño Vocabulario*, and Lawrence A. Wilkins' list; the article presents a list compiled by the writer.

—Attention is directed to *A Graded Spanish Word Book*, published by the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages, University of Toronto Press, 1927. See also E. Broom and M. S. Contreras, *A Background Vocabulary List in Spanish*, Mod. Lang. Jour., 1927, pp. 459-463; E. F. Dexter, *An Analysis of a First Year Spanish Vocabulary*, *ibid.*, 1928, pp. 272-278.

WILKINS, E. H.—*Suggestions as to Method in Making a Vocabulary*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1924, pp. 167-169.

DESCRIBES a method by which a text-book writer can ensure that the vocabulary for the text shall be complete. The vocabulary should contain all the uses and meanings of the word that appear in the text, together with the basic meaning.

EDDY, H. M.—*The French Element in English*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1926, pp. 271-280.

THIS article presents a report of a study of the French element in English based upon an examination of the derivation of the English words in Thorndike's *Teacher's Word Book*. The direct, intermediate and ultimate sources of each of the English words were determined and tabulated. The derivation of the root alone was considered.

On the basis of the direct sources of the 9349 English words, the French element is the most important, 41.38 per cent. of the words having come into English directly from French. The Teutonic element ranks next in importance with 36.96 per cent., Latin next with 14.3 per cent., miscellaneous with 7.03 per cent., and lastly Greek with 0.33 per cent.

Thus the potential value of the study of elementary French for English vocabulary is clearly demonstrated. This suggests that linguistic connections may be made by modern language teachers more successfully than by teachers of the classics.

To secure data by which to discover the actual transfer value of the study of French for English vocabulary, a fuller etymological study was made of the 5000 words of the Word Book that are most important from the standpoint of frequency of occurrence in reading material.

There were found to be 2913 modern French words closely related etymologically to the 2580 English words in the first half of the Word Book that are ultimately of French, Latin or Greek origin. Of these 2913 modern French words, 1615 are found in Henmon's list of the 3900 words most frequently used in the French reading material examined. Of the modern French words, 1221 are either exactly like the corresponding English word

or differ by only one letter or by the interchange of two letters. On the basis of the similarity in form there should be a high transfer value from these French words to the corresponding words in English or vice versa. The actual amount of transfer can be determined only by scientific investigation.

MORGAN, C.—*Vocabulary Analysis of a Second-Year Spanish Text*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1926, pp. 427-430. THE text chosen was Azorín's *Pequeño Filósofo*. In this text 2737 different words are used, and the frequency with which these words occur varies from 1870 to 1.

This vocabulary was compared with a list published by Miss Elsie Jamieson and with the list prepared by the New York Society for the Experimental Study of Education. The former, List J., contains 1098 words. The latter, List E., contains 1746 words.

All words occurring 30 times or over in the text appear in both lists. As the frequency of use in the text decreases, the percentage of the words occurring in lists J. and E. also decreases.

Performing the same process with an *Elementary Spanish Grammar*, the writer found the results practically the same. We may conclude then that so far as this text is concerned it makes no difference whether the student has mastered list J., list E., or the vocabulary of the Grammar. About 79% of the words on a page are familiar to him. Assuming that the pupil remembers all the vocabulary previously acquired, and that after once meeting a word in the text under discussion he will not need to look it up again, he will find on the average 24 unfamiliar words per page. These assumptions are not valid, but the figure given might be trusted in measuring the difficulty of an assignment.



JOHNSON, C. L.—*Vocabulary Difficulty and Text-book Selection*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1927, pp. 290-297.

AN attempt to provide a scientific method of selecting French reading texts as determined by the relative difficulty of their vocabularies. The author combines the words in Henmon's *French Word Book* with one made by himself, based on the vocabularies of twenty high school reading texts, and with the resulting scale arranges thirty-seven texts in their order of difficulty. A few examples are: *Sans famille*, 60; *L'abbé Constantin*, 76; *Madame Thérèse*, 77; *La poudre aux yeux*, 84; *Le livre de mon ami*, 90; *Les Oberlé*, 96; *Colomba*, 107; *Le petit chose*, 109; *La belle nivernaise*, 129. (See also p. 192).

SEIBERT, LOUISE C.—*An Experiment in Learning French Vocabulary*. J. Educ. Psych., 1927, pp. 294-309.

To ascertain the relative efficiency of learning French vocabulary by (1) reading silently, (2) reading aloud, (3) reading aloud, with attempted recall in writing after each reading. The material used consisted of paired lists of English-French words. None of the French words were known before the training started. The words were divided into three series of equal difficulty on the basis of the meaning of English words and syllable-length of French words. All technical and obsolete words and words of Latin origin were omitted. Eighty-one college students were divided into three groups, one of which started with method (1), the second with method (2), and the third with method (3). Each list was practised until learned, time of learning being recorded,—the measure of learning being ability to give the French equivalents for the English words twice without error. The writer points out that this takes longer than is required for a single accurate reproduction. Each list was re-learned after 2, 10 and

42 days, the time for re-learning being noted. A scoring method was devised in which points were deducted for mistakes in accents, spelling, etc. Learning by silent reading was the least efficient of the three methods on all measures of effectiveness,—time spent in first learning, time spent in re-learning, and accuracy of retention. The third method, involving written recall, gave a lower score than continuous reading aloud. The author attributes this to distraction and interference. Students who did well in one process did well in another. Time and accuracy show low correlation (.25 to .39). Accuracy correlations on the three methods correlate between .55 and .67, and time correlations between .42 and .61. Studying aloud has then a double advantage, it secures greater accuracy and more persistent retention.

WOOD, B. D.—*A Comparative Study of the Vocabularies of Sixteen French Text-books*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1927, pp. 263-289.

USEFUL comparisons with Henmon's *French Word Book* (University of Wisconsin, 1924; out of print, but about to be reprinted in a revised edition by the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages). The study shows that modern language texts are not soundly articulated as to vocabulary, there being only 134 words common to sixteen widely used texts (chiefly elementary grammars and readers). Each new text uses so many new words that many words previously learned are forgotten through disuse. Moreover, some words of little value are well learned, while some of greater value are slighted. An effort should be made to give the student an opportunity to learn all of the most useful words. The author prints his list with frequencies of occurrence in 400,000 words of running discourse, and divided into lists common to 16, 15 books, and so on.

DEXTER, E. F.—*An Analysis of a First Year Spanish Vocabulary*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1928, pp. 272-278.

IN one semester of a typical first year Spanish college course students are given 1792 new words, or more than one hundred a week; in French 1650, and in German 650. The investigator is chiefly concerned with the Spanish problem. For the whole year there is a total of 4918 different words. As the author remarks, it is unreasonable to expect that any but a trained linguist could retain even a passive knowledge of this number. The result is that the average student spends his study-time looking up words, and writing them in the interlinear spaces of his book. Checking the list of 4918 words with the *Graded Spanish Word Book*, it is found that 949 or about one-fifth are of infrequent occurrence in the language. The investigator has with others observed that Spanish vocabulary is difficult to retain although it is largely derived from Latin. Many words disguise their origin (*ojo-oculus, siglo-saeculum*), and the author believes that only when the Latin stem appears in English words is it recognizable by the student. Examining the 4918 words she finds that 640 are of other than pure Latin origin. The author favors the mastery of a definite and fairly limited number of basic words as a basis for the gradual acquisition of a larger vocabulary.—The best practical solution for the problem of vocabulary, which is after all *the* problem in modern languages, is offered in West's *Bilingualism* and the text-books prepared by him (see pp. 215, 261).

(i) *General*

SCHILLER, H.—*Studien und Versuche über die Erlernung der Orthographie. Sammlung v. Abhandlgn. aus d. Gebiete d. pädagogischen Psychologie u. Physio-*

*logie. II Bd. Heft 4.* Berlin, Reuther & Reichard, 1898. 63 pp.

GERMAN words were presented in eleven different ways, visual, auditory, motor, and various combinations of these, as a means of teaching spelling. Each test was repeated eight times with new German words. The experiment was repeated with Latin words. No attempt was made to teach meaning simultaneously. Basis of comparison was number of errors. Merely hearing words pronounced (not spelled) is least effective; showing word-form, as well as pronouncing it, reduced errors; seeing word-form and copying it produces fewest errors. Dictation should be used less and copying more generally in early years of school life to secure accurate spelling.

WUNDT, W.—*Völkerpsychologie. I. Die Sprache.* Leipzig, Engelmann, 1900. ix + 627, x + 644 pp. 35 M.

THIS monograph is of importance historically, since it inaugurated the psychological movement in language study, and intrinsically, because of its discussion of the many varied phases of the language problem. It deals with anthropological data, theories of the origin of language, the psychological basis of language learning (*cf.* Flagstad), and so forth. In fact there is scarcely any problem, psychological, pedagogical, anthropological, to which this erudite scholar does not make some contribution in this work. The reviewer has felt that any brief summary, such as is required in this monograph, would be inadequate. The book is, however, the most important work published on language problems.

BAGLEY, W. C.—*The Apperception of the Spoken Sentence, A Study in the Psychology of Language.* Amer. J. Psych., 1900-01, pp. 80-130.

AN analysis of the psychological problems connected with



language and a review of experimental methods with results obtained up to the time of writing. Up to about 1890 few psychologists attempted to give language a place in their systems, much less concerned themselves with its nature and development. From this date on three types of investigation began to appear: genetic studies of language growth, by J. M. Baldwin, Preyer, Tracy, Kirkpatrick and others; studies of the pathology of language, by Wernicke, Hughlings Jackson, Charcot, Dejerine, Freud, and others; and some laboratory studies of reading, by Cattell, Grashey, Pillsbury, Erdmann, Dodge, Huey and others. Bagley points out that any adequate psychology of language must deal with two major problems: its function in higher mental processes (thinking), and its use as a means of communication.

BARTH, P.—*Zur Psychologie der gebundenen und der freien Wortstellung*. Phil. Studien, 1902, pp. 22-48.

FOR races as widely separated as the Chinese, Bantu, Iroquois, Semitic and Sanskrit, the order of words in the clause is strictly conventional. The author considers that a phenomenon so general in its appearance must be based on some psychological factors and the article is a series of hypotheses as to the reasons for the sequence appearing in the German language.

MEILLET, A.—*Note sur Quelques Recherches de Linguistique*. L'Année Psych., 1905, pp. 457-467.

THIS article is partly historical, in part analytic. The linguistic researches of the 19th century were dominantly concerned with tracing the evolution of particular linguistic phenomena. Such a study as Paul's *Prinzipien der Sprachgeschichte*, 1880, typifies this stage. The immediate effect of this policy was to supplant grammar by the study of linguistic change. This historical phase

is important, but no science of language can be built on such semi-empirical data. In 1900 Wundt's publication, *Die Sprache*, gave rise to a new school, the psychological, which insisted that language is a psychological phenomenon only and that psychological laws should provide all necessary explanations of linguistic phenomena. This position has evoked an extensive literature, controversial if not polemical in nature. Delbrück attacked Wundt's position in his *Grundfragen der Sprachforschung*, 1901, and the same year saw Wundt's reply in *Sprachgeschichte und Sprachpsychologie*. Sütterlin, Rozwadowski and many others contributed to the debate. Meillet concedes the value of psychological explanations, but points out that they are necessarily inadequate to account completely for phenomena that are determined by historical, social, anatomic and physiological as well as psychological factors. A third line of major interest has been in phonetics. In this field Grammont, in his *Dissimilation Consonantique dans les langues Indo-Européennes et les langues Romanes*, tried to discover phonetic laws governing dissimilation of general applicability. He states several tentative formulations and finally reduces all the phenomena of dissimilation to one law, *viz.*, if in a word or in a group of closely connected words a single articulatory movement is repeated, one of such articulations tends to drop out. The one that is dropped, other things being equal, is the first, because it is executed with least intensity, and least engages the attention of the speaker. Thus *veneno* becomes *veleno* in Italian. This reduction of dissimilation to a single psychological law has attracted little notice, and apparently has led to no research. Meillet contends that phonetic laws are not laws of universal application, but are limited by time and place, hence cannot be accepted as explanatory.

—In a bibliography of this kind it is impossible to list all of the works dealing with the science of linguistics. The reader is therefore referred to a useful synthetic review of the most important of them (with some serious omissions, however, analysed in the present bibliography) by L. Bloomfield (*Mod. Phil.*, 1927, pp. 211-230). The author justly remarks: "The practical application concerns many activities, such as teaching children to read, teaching foreign languages, stenography, etc. Unfortunately our educators are ignorant of the results of linguistic science, and seem in no hurry to inform themselves."

A similar synthetic article by C. Rogge, *Die Krise in der Sprachwissenschaft von heute und die Psychologie des sprachschaffenden Menschen*, appeared in the *Archiv für die gesamte Psychologie*, 1926, pp. 397-420.

MACDOUGALL, R.—*The Child's Speech*. J. Educ. Psych., 1912, pp. 423-429, 507-513, 571-576; 1913, pp. 29-38, 85-96.

AN account of the motives underlying speech, and the genetic development of speech from infantile cries. The incentives to speech in an infant are of two general types, personal and environmental. Among the former should be included the "instinct" for self-expression, the tendency to imitation of sounds, and a social instinct, a craving for sympathy and appreciation, the full development of which is possible only with speech. In the same group should be included a tendency to play with sounds, to repeat for his own entertainment (though with variations) any sounds he hears, and the organic urges that can be satisfied adequately only when he can control his environment by language. The influence of social factors is evidenced by the response of a child to praise, and to approval of his speech efforts.

The earliest "speech" of the child is a conventionalized sigh, shriek, groan, laugh, etc. by which danger, pain, joy, etc. are indicated. From this the system of articulated language expression arises. It is thus merely a substitution of symbols. These early responses persist in language, and aid materially in its interpretation. The mother is of predominant importance in determining the speech development of the child. In its early stages development shows itself not in acquisition of grammatical forms, nor even of vocabulary, but of intonation, voice-quality, articulation, modulation in force and inflection. The meanings of words are not acquired originally through definition but through associations with experiences. The earliest associations are word and thing, not name and thing. A word is a name only when it is a means of indicating or demonstrating or representing it. It is the lack of community of experience that makes the mastery of a new language difficult. By the end of the first month of life the child shows a definite interest in sounds, and presently begins to move his lips and make short responsive sounds. By the beginning of the fifth month the child has uttered most of the sounds of the mother tongue. Early in the second half year, articulate sounds begin to appear,—but only under tension or in emergencies. At this time of life he uses many other language symbols as supplementary to vocal,—pointing, tone-modulation, gesture. Factors limiting the appearance of articulate speech are the complex of muscle combinations involved, difficulties due to relations of preceding and following sounds, imperfection of vocal organs, fatigue, excitement and so on.

FLAGSTAD, C. B.—*Psychologie der Sprachpädagogik*. Leipzig, Teubner, 1913. xxviii + 370 pp. \$2.20.



THIS is one of the best known books on the psychological nature of language. The book is divided into three main parts: the word image, the structure of language as an expression of psychic content, and the relation of language to the totality of psychic life.

The major positions advanced by Flagstad may be summarized briefly: (1) The nature of the word image is the means by which language is represented. (2) The word image is a complex of visual, auditory and motor elements. The division of persons into types on the ground that their images were exclusively or chiefly visual or auditory is erroneous; it is probable that word imagery is quite similar in all individuals. (3) In word images auditory and kinaesthetic elements play a dominant part. The advisability of dividing experiences in terms of sense departments may be questioned; in actual life a separation of these elements becomes impossible. The author considers the interrelation of sense department functioning to be a fundamental position in psychological analysis. Visual stimuli come to play such an important part in mental life because of the close correlation of vision and movement. Similarly, many intense auditory stimuli are not noted because they evoke no motor response. As a result of this analysis the author concludes that the motor elements are fundamental in word imagery, "for memory of a sound, the connected image of movement is of prime importance, and the necessary condition for the union of the sound image with the rest of the content of consciousness is its fusion with images of space, of material and of movement".<sup>1</sup> The pedagogical implication of this is the need for the pronunciation of the word by the teacher and by the child. (4) This close integration of visual, auditory and kinaesthetic elements

<sup>1</sup>Quoted from Claparède, *Arch. de Psych.*, 1913, pp. 92-103.

is a source of difficulty in learning foreign language words, in which the accustomed correlations cannot be made. (5) The author points out that Stricker and Wundt both regard the motor elements of an image as the most important, and quotes Wundt "the words which an individual is unable to pronounce correctly he is also unable to hear correctly, due to the deficient sense of articulation".<sup>1</sup> But Flagstad, while insisting on the dominant significance of motor imagery, maintains that it is equally a mistake to disregard the other elements—visual and auditory. (6) There is an aversion on the part of the learner to sounds distinctly different from those of the mother tongue, *e.g.*, the German *ü*. (7) An analysis is made of the values of phonetic instruction, of which the author approves. (8) The superior ability of children in the learning of a foreign language is due to (*a*) the instability of their own language, and (*b*) enjoyment in the use of speech organs in producing all kinds of sounds.

The remaining sections of the book are concerned with topics of purely psychological interest.

EPSTEIN, I.—*La Pensée et la Polyglossie*. Lausanne, Libr. Payot, (1916?), 216 pp. 25 cents.

A STUDY of the linguistic behaviour of polyglot individuals. Subjects on whom the results are reported comprise foreign students at Swiss universities, some Swiss scientists, other adults who replied to a questionnaire, and some children whose linguistic histories have been recorded. Only the conclusions are here indicated: (1) In the polyglot individual each foreign language possesses a certain amount of autonomy, *i.e.*, each one is understood and used without translation into the vernacular; (2) This autonomy is most marked in the "receptive"

<sup>1</sup>Wundt, *Die Sprache*, p. 339.

phases of language,—understanding and reading, and least in the “expressive” phases—speaking and writing. In the case of the latter the image of the vernacular word arises first. As learning proceeds and the person becomes more skilled in linguistic expression in the foreign language the vernacular word-image is more and more rapidly repressed; (3) A foreign language may become the instrument of thought, and a person may find himself even day-dreaming in it. This is especially liable to appear when a person starts to think in the technical language of a science that he has learned in the foreign tongue, (*vide* Ronjat, p. 207) or after a period of sustained reading in this language; (4) Interference may appear in both directions between the foreign language and the vernacular. Such interference may affect either the fluency or the clearness of both. Five types of inhibition are enumerated: (*a*) interference with pronunciation, (*b*) introduction of words from one language to the other, (*c*) confusion of grammatical forms, *e.g.*, in use of adverbs, (*d*) altered placement of words, (*e*) errors in formulation of concepts, *e.g.*, the polyglot German often uses in French “clair jour” instead of “grand jour”, as a substitute for the German “heller Tag”. Children learn a foreign language more easily than adults not because of better memory or greater flexibility of the speech organs, but on account of deficient mastery, and consequent instability of the vernacular. Bilingualism interferes with clear thinking, and definiteness of expression. The same factor of interference makes it almost impossible to acquire a complete mastery of a foreign language.

Epstein’s pedagogical conclusion is that the study of foreign languages, for expression at least, must be reduced to a minimum. “Polyglossie impressive et monoglossie expressive” represent the proper didactic principle.

In a review of the book, Stern agrees that the interference of a foreign language is harmful especially with reference to children. He warns against premature foreign language training through foreign nurses or in kindergartens.

BARAT, D.—*Le Langage*. Rev. Phil., 1917, pp. 105-131. LANGUAGE is dependent upon the development of a system of automatic associations. These function in several ways; in the co-ordination of speech movements, in the analysis and interpretation of sensation, and in the calling up of images. But language cannot develop without parallel development in the cerebral cortex.

ERICKSON, C. I. and KING, I.—*A Comparison of Visual and Oral Presentation of Lessons in the Case of Pupils from the Third to the Ninth Grades*. Sch. and Soc., 1917, pp. 146-148.

To determine the difference between the presentation of lesson material visually, that is through silent reading, and the presentation of the same or similar material orally by the teacher, is the problem presented in this article. Approximately 100 children in grades 3 to 9 acted as subjects. Each group was subdivided into two sections, one section reading the assignment which was presented orally to the other. Two series of tests of four lessons each were given. On the second day the method of presentation for the groups was reversed. Papers were scored on a basis of points correctly answered.

In the 3rd and 4th grades the method of oral presentation gives the best results for each lesson. In the 5th and 6th grades the results are inconclusive, although the average for the oral presentation is slightly better than the other. In the 7th and 8th grades the visual presenta-



tion through reading was more effectual than the oral presentation in the first series, and the oral was superior to the reading in the second series. Averages for both methods show a clear superiority for the oral presentation.

In the ninth grade test the oral presentation is greatly superior.

Taking the results as a whole, the oral presentation is superior for these grades.

Individual records show that pupils tend to retain about the same relative rank in their various groups whichever method is employed.

SECHEHAYE, A.—*Les Problèmes de la Langue*. Rev. Phil., 1917, pp. 1-30.

WHICH particular language signs (vocabulary, etc.) will be used in any community, or by any racial group, is a matter not of native characteristics or inherent make-up of the individuals, but is wholly fortuitous and arbitrary. It is futile to discuss the question of relative priority of language signs and ideas; there cannot be an idea until there is a language sign for it, and there cannot be another idea until there is another and different language sign assigned to it. The explanation of linguistic changes is primarily social, not psychological.

DELACROIX, H.—*Psychologie du Langage*. Revue Philosophique, 1918, pp. 1-27.

THIS article is a chapter from the author's *Traité de Psychologie*, and is an outline of what he considers a full psychology of language. He deals with the origin of language, phonetic laws, the development of language in the individual, language as an expression of thought, and changes of significance in language.

The problem of origin is really insoluble, but the

writer considers it advisable to state an hypothesis. Language is primarily connected with the expression of emotions. A "natural" cry or a "natural" gesture is the immediate expression of an emotional state. This eventually becomes a symbol, and when it does so it ceases to be an "immediate" and "natural" expression of emotion and becomes "conventional". This process can be seen in gestures in the individual.

From the point of the conventionalisation of a sound to the complete development of language is a difficult step. For the author, the secret of it lies in man's power of abstraction, of thinking of the means as well as the end. The power of abstraction and the development of language are thus both developed from the same root, man's ability to become "disinterested."

Some phonetic changes are due to changes and limitations of the organs of speech; a second group includes modifications depending upon the reaction of the elements in a phrase; assimilation, dissimilation, etc.

There are in addition "general tendencies", such as weakening of the end of a word.

Thus in phonetic development, biological, psychological and social laws coexist.

A brief discussion of the development of language in the individual is given. In the child there is the period of the cry, of prattle, and of articulation.

The age of articulation is the age of imitation. The child begins with single words. Two processes are in evidence: that of suiting the word to the situation, and that of perfecting articulation by trial and error. As to the first, words are placed two and two, then in groups, then in order as determined by their importance, finally in grammatical order. Articulation is perfected by six or eight years. As the child speaks then, so will he all his life.

The child does not invent language. Neologisms are extraordinarily rare. He learns by imitation, and the social *milieu* is all-important. In primitive language and in infantile language the sentence is the unit, the word has no independent existence.

The author treats language as an instrument of thought and shows that as thought becomes more rich and more precise so does language. Parts of speech become more and more separated from the word, *e.g.*, prepositions are used instead of inflection, until words instead of being autonomous, become instruments of grammatical construction. *I am, i.e., I exist*, shows *am* as autonomous. In *I am sick* it is a grammatical instrument. The copula is a triumph of abstract thought.

The last section deals with significant changes such as the giving of more precise meanings to words, and the development of "special" languages.

—Delacroix is the author of *Le langage et la pensée* (Paris, Alcan, 1924, 602 pp., \$2.40), with an extensive bibliography.

VAN HORNE, JOHN.—*Spanish Texts and the Spanish Language*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1918, pp. 170-176.

THE gap between the speech of the Spanish people and that of their masters of prose style is so great as to make difficult the transition from the elementary reader to literature. The article proposes that newspapers, commercial and historical documents be used as an intermediate step.

CASTILLO, C.—*Class Problems in Advanced Spanish*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1921, pp. 95-99.

INDICATES specific errors in pronunciation that are offensive and which should be corrected early, and specific

points of grammar that may be considered equally fundamental.

MAROUZEAU, J.—*La Linguistique ou science du langage*.  
Paris, Geuthner, 1921. 188 pp. 75 cents.

A POPULAR but scholarly guide "for those who would explore the world that lies behind the austere façade of grammars", taking up phonetics, vocabulary (morphology, semantics), syntax, style, grammar (descriptive, historical, comparative), language laws, historical and philological science, and finally, a history of the study of language. The examples are taken from French.

"*La linguistique et l'enseignement de la grammaire*. Anarchie apparente, dont se méfie la science officielle, celle qui a la responsabilité de l'enseignement; et les manuels continuent à propager dans les écoles et les lycées les vieux préjugés de la philologie. Une des premières choses qu'apprend l'enfant à l'école, c'est la distinction des 'dix parties du discours' qui date pour le moins de Denys d'Halicarnasse, et qui est affaire de logique plus que de grammaire; le pauvre écolier s'en aperçoit bien quand il lui faut distinguer *en*, préposition, dans 'en marche' de *en*, conjonction, dans 'en marchant'. Puis il apprend 'l'analyse logique': on lui enseigne, véritable contre-sens historique et grammatical, que 'il mange' est mis pour 'il est mangeant'. Des 'cours supérieurs' de grammaire lui expliquent par l'appel aux 'formes irrégulières', aux 'exceptions', aux 'figures', des faits de langue qui résultent de la stricte application de lois phonétiques, analogiques . . . Tant bien que mal il arrive à connaître sa langue, à savoir le français; mais quel français! Il vit dans l'idée que le français possède 6 voyelles, tout étonné quand on lui montre que *eu* aussi en est une dans *feu*, et *on* dans *ton*, et *ou* dans *fou*, et que



*i* n'en est pas une dans *hier*, pas plus que *u* dans *lui*; il répète que les adjectifs font leur féminin en ajoutant un *e* muet à la forme du masculin, et reste interdit quand on lui montre qu'il n'y a entre *long* et *longue*, *doux* et *douce*, *grand* et *grande* que la différence d'une consonne de plus ou de moins (p. 73).

C'est qu'il est habitué à voir la langue sous le masque de l'écriture, c'est-à-dire défigurée, travestie. Il étudie le français comme on étudie une langue morte. On ne lui montre pas que ces apparences, l'*e* muet, la diphthongue *ou*, etc., ont été autrefois des réalités, et que l'état actuel s'explique par l'état ancien.

Si en même temps que sa langue maternelle il a la chance d'apprendre une ou deux langues étrangères, on lui présente une grammaire construite sur le modèle de sa grammaire française ou de sa grammaire latine, bourrée de règles et d'exceptions, à moins que, autre excès, on ne lui fasse absorber sans explication grammaticale et par méthode directe tout le matériel de la langue parlée. Il s'étonne de rencontrer en anglais quantité de mots français: on ne lui dit pas comment ils y sont venus, ce qui serait lui révéler le mécanisme de l'emprunt. — Il est dérouté par les caprices de la prononciation anglaise: ce serait l'occasion de lui montrer que la bizarrerie est dans l'orthographe, qui n'a qu'une valeur de convention, et non dans la prononciation, qui est la réalité présente et vivante."

SCOTT, H. F. and CARR, W. L.—*The Development of Language*. Chicago, Scott, Foresman, (1921). 215 pp. \$1.20.

MAKES available for high school pupils fundamental facts of language development, and is the type of work recommended by educationists as a preliminary course

for foreign language study. The authors feel, however, that best results can be obtained with pupils who have had some Latin or French (presumably also German, Italian, Spanish).

The work deals with the historical development of language, and summarizes methods by which new words have been acquired, word forms changed, and connotations of words altered. Languages are classified into three groups: (a) Isolating, where no change appears in word structure for tense, mood or number; (b) Inflectional, where functions of words are indicated by declensions and conjugations, *e.g.*, Greek, German; (c) Analytic, where prepositions and articles express the ideas given by word-endings in type, *e.g.*, English, French, Italian and Spanish. The earliest written symbols, hieroglyphics, were used to express an idea, and only later was it discovered that they might stand for a sound or a syllable. There are about fifty alphabets in existence.

Contents: The Origin of Language; The Growth of Vocabulary; The Alphabet; Classes of Languages; Families of Languages; The Aryans; Greek and Latin; The Romance Languages; Germanic and Latin Elements in English; Borrowed Words; The Sounds of Spoken Language; How Latin Words Changed; Why Words Change in Form; Changes in Meaning; Good Usage; World Languages; Prefixes; Suffixes; Homonyms.

—See below for a somewhat similar text-book, Leonard and Cox, *General Language*, 1925.

KANTOR, J. R.—*An Analysis of Psychological Language Data*. Psych. Rev., 1922, pp. 267-309.

THEORETICAL analysis of psychological problems involved in language (but not in language learning). Chiefly con-

cerned with a definition of language, and the relation of language and thinking, which he refuses to identify.

ORTON, A. E.—*An Investigation of the Commoner Spelling Errors in French*. Mod. Lang., 1922, pp. 45-48.

THE original purpose of this investigation was to build up a table of frequencies for the commonest mis-spellings in French made by the pupils in the first and second years. Eight schools sent in lists which contained about eight hundred different words and showed great diversity of vocabulary. It was felt that any attempt to indicate the frequency of certain mis-spellings from so limited a field would be unreliable. A classification of the errors appears in this report. Of the total number, 20.3 per cent. were mistakes in accents. A second group includes all those in which there was evidence of confusion with another English or French word, or a confusion of similar sounds. Groups 3 and 4 include errors in double consonants and errors of omission. The fifth group is a miscellaneous collection of errors which were not particularly related to any of the larger groups. The errors in vowel sounds were most difficult to classify.

PIÉRON, H.—*Le cerveau et la pensée*. Paris, Alcan, 1923 (2nd ed.). 326 pp. 85 cents.

A PSYCHO-PATHOLOGICAL study of language ("la pensée symbolique") supplementing more purely "linguistic" and comparative studies of language, and making accessible a great deal of experimental and theoretic literature on the subject.

"Dans les troubles globaux d'inégale intensité, la même loi vaut toujours, et les expressions les plus automatisées, les plus usuelles, sont les plus tenaces, et peuvent surnager isolément dans le naufrage de la compréhension

auditive: le nom est généralement reconnu. En revanche, les formes grammaticales, les significations impliquées par la syntaxe échappent d'abord et les mots saillants sont seuls compris.

Les langues étrangères peu employées sont généralement très fragiles." (p. 249).

*Les Langues du monde, par un groupe de linguistes, sous la direction de A. Meillet et Marcel Cohen.* Paris, Champion, 1924. (Vol. XVI of the excellent Collection Linguistique publiée par la Société de Linguistique de Paris). xvi + 311 pp., 18 maps and diagrams. \$6.80.

THE part of this encyclopaedic work which interests the modern language student is the first chapter on Indo-European languages by J. Vendryes:

"La famille indo-européenne est celle à laquelle étaient réservées dans l'histoire les destinées les plus hautes. Elle a créé les formes linguistiques qui ont servi aux littératures les plus belles et les plus riches; elle a aidé à se répandre les civilisations qui ont conquis le monde. Il se parle aujourd'hui des langages indo-européennes dans la presque totalité de l'Europe et de l'Amérique, dans une grande partie de l'Asie, dans une partie notable de l'Afrique et de l'Océanie.

Ce succès prodigieux, si on le compare au sort de tant d'autres langues, qui ont végété sans éclat dans des territoires resserrés ou même ont été étouffées par des langues plus vivaces, s'explique par des causes historiques, au nombre desquelles il faut compter le génie propre des Indo-européens, le caractère de leurs institutions, le prestige de leur civilisation. Partout où ils se sont étendus, les Indo-européens représentent une aristocratie conquérante, dominant des peuples vaincus et leur imposant



avec son autorité l'usage de sa langue. L'extension des langues indo-européennes s'est faite par une série de conquêtes. Le sanskrit a pénétré en conquérant dans l'Inde, comme le latin en Italie, comme l'allemand dans la partie orientale de l'Allemagne actuelle, comme le russe en Russie, comme le français, l'espagnol, l'anglais dans le nouveau monde. Un des résultats de la conquête était d'étendre la langue des conquérants sur un territoire plus ou moins vaste. Cette langue y restait sensiblement uniforme jusqu'au jour où le relâchement des liens communs (politiques, économiques, religieux ou autres) permettait la constitution de groupes distincts et laissait à chacun de ces groupes la liberté d'un développement indépendant. Ainsi la ruine de l'empire romain a détruit l'unité de la langue latine; réduit à l'état de langue morte, le latin céda la place aux langues néo-latines, qui se partagèrent le vaste domaine sur lequel régnait uniformément le latin."

JESPERSEN, O.—*Mankind, Nation and Individual from a Linguistic Point of View*. London, Williams & Norgate, 1925. 221 pp. \$1.40.

THE fourth volume of the publications of the Norwegian Institute for Comparative Research in Human Culture, and a delightful discussion, by an authority on such matters, of the nature of language, the causes of changes, variable standards of correctness, dialects, and other linguistic matters. It is probably the best introduction to modern speculations on linguistic problems associated with such names as De Saussure (*Cours de Linguistique Générale*, Paris, Payot, 1922), Delacroix (*Le Langage et la Pensée*, Paris, Alcan, 1924), Bally (*Le Langage et la Vie*, Paris, Payot, 1926), Meillet (*Linguistique Historique et Linguistique Générale*, Paris, 1921), Vossler (*Frankreichs*

*Kultur im Spiegel seiner Sprachentwicklung*, Heidelberg, 1921), Palmer (*Memorandum on Problems of English Teaching, etc.*).

—See also under Meillet, *Note sur Quelques Recherches de Linguistique*, 1905, in this bibliography, p. 277, and *passim*.

LEONARD, S. A. and COX, R. F.—*General Language, a series of lessons in grammar, word study, and history of the English language for junior high schools*. Chicago, Rand McNally, 1925. xvi + 266 pp. \$1.30.

THIS book is intended to provide a foundation for the study of foreign languages, classic and modern, and for the work in English in the upper years of the high school. In part it takes up the study of "roots", a favourite school subject of a past generation. In the appendices are lists of books for junior high school pupils (mostly adventure), samples (in modern English) of Anglo-Saxon poetry, etc.

—See above for Scott and Carr's, *The Development of Language*, 1921.

VENDRYES, J.—*Language, A Linguistic Introduction to History*. New York, Knopf, 1925. xxviii + 378 pp. \$5.75.

ONE of the best of the recent works on linguistics, only a few points of which can be analysed here. Philologists distinguish three different elements in language: sounds, vocabulary, grammar. Phonetics has to do with the production, transmission and reception of sounds (audition). The list of possible sounds is almost limitless; moreover, pitch, stress, modulation, and intonation multiply their variety. Every language has a phonetic system peculiar to itself. English has hardly a single vowel in common

with French. When a foreign language is pronounced, adjustments have to be made,—hence fatigue. Parts of speech cannot be classified satisfactorily. There is an extraordinary difference between the spoken and written language. Apt quotations illustrating this are taken from Bally. In the spoken language there is no such thing as the balanced sentence with its subordinate clauses marshalled about it. The spoken language substitutes juxtaposition for subordination.

Most of us are visualizers and understand a text best when we see it. Proper nouns are forgotten first; concrete substantives more quickly than the abstract, because an abstraction penetrates the mind by an intellectual effort and requires more definite mental intention, whereas the concrete is simply a reflection of an object on the mirror of consciousness.

BALLY, C.—*Le Langage et la Vie*. Paris, Payot, 1926. 236 pp. \$1.60.

THIS is for the most part a reprint, with important modifications, of articles that have appeared previously in print: *Le langage et la vie*; *Stylistique et linguistique générale*; *Essai sur le mécanisme de l'expressivité linguistique*; *Langage transmis et langage acquis*; *La langue maternelle et la formation de l'esprit*.

The argument that runs through the essays is that language is not a purely intellectual phenomenon. Through the centuries language has been studied for grammar, rhetoric, logic, correction and purity of style, literary culture and the appreciation of classical authors. Hence there has arisen a worship of the written language with its accompanying contempt for spoken speech, which is the only language, because it is the only living one. Changes in language are unconscious and collective, and

usually rise from below ("the grovelling herd"), language being a product of social life. "Nous voyons un peu mieux, sinon ce que c'est qu'une langue, du moins ce qu'elle n'est pas: le langage naturel, celui que nous parlons tous, n'est au service ni de la raison pure, ni de l'art; il ne vise ni un idéal logique, ni un idéal littéraire; sa fonction primordiale et constante n'est pas de construire des syllogismes, d'arrondir des périodes, de se plier aux lois de l'alexandrin. Il est simplement au service de la vie, non de la vie de quelques-uns, mais de tous, et dans toutes ses manifestations: sa fonction est biologique et sociale."

The spoken language has not yet been thoroughly studied. The neo-grammarians of the historical school of the 19th century moreover studied even the written language from too narrow a point of view. Bally gives some interesting distinctions between spoken and written French, the former characterized (p. 137) as "le langage spontané, naturel, parlé, émanation de la vie réelle". In the spoken language there are no such things as the paradigms analysed in our text-books for didactic purposes. Instead of *aime, aimes, aime*, etc., there are agglutinated forms *jèm, tuèm, ilèm, nouzémon, vouzémés, ilzèm*,—a point well worth observing when teaching pupils to understand the spoken word.

GREEN, A.—*The Measurement of Modern Language Books*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1926, pp. 259-269.

ENUMERATES criteria, principally subjective, by which the value of a text-book in modern languages may be judged: Does the author define his aims? Are the space allotments to various topics proportional to the relative values of the topics? Was the book written so as to make a wide or limited appeal? Is the book published by a firm that specializes in modern language publications? Is the book widely used? The evaluation of a book should be



made, further, in terms of method, content, organization, form of presentation and adaptability.

DE LAGUNA, G. A.—*Speech, Its Function and Development*. New Haven, Yale Univ. Press, 1927. xii + 363 pp. \$4.25.

THE most recent study of the psychological significance of language. Instead of treating it as a phenomenon of individual mental life, the author investigates speech as a social enterprise. At this point she is concerned with the problem of the origin of speech, and its evolution from the animal cry. Speech is then biologically significant, correlated with a change in habitat, and a consequent change in the needs of the organism. Language becomes the medium for co-ordinating group activities. Part II deals with the relation of speech to higher forms of intellectual life. The treatment is genetic, and perhaps as a consequence is somewhat behavioristic. Part III demonstrates the relation of speech to conception, purpose, memory, imagination and other mental processes. The beginning of language in the infant is the sentence-word; from the beginning, the baby, "when he is not indulging in pure vocal play, is talking in complete, if rudimentary sentences." All the earlier theories of language are passed in review, both empirical observation and experimental data are recorded, and the whole compiled into a text of first-rate importance to students of language.

HAYES, R. J.—*Comparative Idiom: an Introduction to the Study of Modern Languages*. Dublin, Hodges, Figgis & Co., 1927. vii + 108 pp. \$1.05.

AN interesting comparative study that may help the teacher to observe idiomatic differences. No attempt is made to draw psychological inferences from the facts stated, or to give historical explanations.

JORGENSEN, PETER.—*Spelling Difficulties for Pupils from Danish-Speaking Homes*. (M.A. Thesis, University of Iowa.)

To determine whether those phonetic elements of the English language that are not found in Danish constitute a special spelling difficulty for pupils from Danish-speaking homes. Several writers have shown that pupils from homes where a foreign language is spoken make a lower score in spelling than children from English-speaking homes. This study is an attempt to analyse one of the factors that might contribute to this result,—a difference in the constituent phonetic elements of the languages. Seven phonetic elements that appear in English are not found in Danish. They are: (1) the voiceless “th” as in *thin*, (2) the voiced “th” as in *then*, (3) “w” as in *want*, (4) “hw” for “wh” as in *what*, (5) “sh” as in *rush*, (6) “z” as in *zone*, (7) “zh” as in *azure*. Spelling tests were specially constructed for grades 4, 6 and 8. Each grade list contained sixty words, fourteen of which contained the phonetic elements noted above,—two instances of each element. Each word was read aloud twice before it was spelled by the pupils. 263 children took the test, of whom 114 were from Danish-speaking homes. The results were uniform for all grades,—the words containing the phonetic elements were spelled as accurately by Danish-speaking children as were the other words. Nor were the results different when the words were scored by syllables. The four phonetic elements that gave the most difficulty were the voiceless *th*, *hw*, *z*, and *zh*. “It is not warranted to conclude that a difference in constituent phonetic elements of two languages causes a spelling difficulty for pupils who use both these languages.”

## V. THE LEARNING PROCESS

JACOBI, M. P.—*Language in Education*. Amer. J. Psy., 1888, pp. 91-40.

AN attempt to state a neurological basis for transfer and "general training resulting from the use of language." Much of the article is speculative physiology; more of it is an attempt to state in neurological terms psychological facts and hypotheses. Languages should be studied as families, as genera. The acquisition of foreign languages, in addition to the mother tongue, modifies the cerebral process by extending, refining and complicating it. "The synthetical expressions of the language as a whole must be stamped on the brain before the pupil is called upon to analyse the language. This is to be done by *much* and *rapid* reading". A child should not be introduced to classics in the foreign languages too early,—“We do not forbid English children to read English until they are capable of understanding Milton.”

KIRKPATRICK, E. A.—*An Experimental Study of Memory*. Psy. Rev., 1894, pp. 602-609.

AN investigation of the dependence of memory on the sense department involved in learning. Ten names of common objects (*e.g.* box, desk, thumb) were read aloud, one every two seconds, to school pupils and college students; ten similar words were shown on the blackboard; and in the third case the ten objects were presented. Tests for immediate and delayed reproduction (3 days) were taken. Subjects recalled objects much better than written names, and written names better than spoken names. In a second experiment ten words descriptive of sounds (*e.g.* ring, tinkle) were read aloud, with instructions to think of the sound; ten words descriptive of visual

qualities (*e.g.* gloom, green) were read, and subjects asked to think of visual appearance; the third list of ten words consisted of the names of objects (*e.g.* spade, nest), and subjects were asked to think of the objects. Best results were obtained with the second method—words were remembered best when visual appearance was thought of. The words descriptive of objects (to be thought of) were recalled poorest of all. Females are superior to males in both immediate and delayed reproduction of words. Marked individual differences appeared. Concrete material is then remembered better than verbal, and the superiority increases with the passing of time.

HAWKINS, C. J.—*Experiments on Memory Types*. Psy. Rev., 1897, pp. 289-294.

PRESENTED lists of words in two ways: by reading them aloud (auditory), and by showing them for 30 seconds (visual). Subjects were pupils in public and high schools and college students. Found that, with word lists of the length used (10 words), auditory memory was superior to visual (the differences are negligible—Rev.) with children 8 to 12 years; visual memory was superior to auditory with students 15 to 18 years of age. No attempt was made to repeat the experiment with these pupils, and it is doubtful if very great reliance can be placed on the quantitative relationships given in the report. An interesting finding reported is that when pupils were required to read the same list of ten numbers two and three times, the performance following two readings was poorer than that following one. A third reading, however, resulted in a significant increase. The author attributes this to interference or confusion, which disappeared as the learning proceeded. Ability to recognize is almost double that of ability to recall.



TALBOT, E. B.—*An Attempt to Train the Visual Memory*. Amer. J. Psych., 1897, pp. 332-345.

THE author, defective in visual memory, tried to train it. Her imagery was almost entirely verbal-motor or verbal-auditory at the beginning of the practice period. She read poetry with lines of unequal length, and studied prints for some 10 seconds. She then attempted to reproduce both. For the latter material she drew rough sketches showing the distribution of colour and position of objects. At the end of seven months, with two hours a week of practice, she found herself able to visualize long words. Visual imagery while not dominant was much improved.

CALKINS, M. W.—*Short Studies in Memory and in Association*. Psy. Rev., 1898, pp. 451-462.

A REPETITION of E. A. Kirkpatrick's study (p. 299) with 50 college students, under laboratory conditions. Found that whereas 4.82 words were recalled after two days, 7.45 pictures of objects were recalled out of ten presented. The superiority of retention of objects was greater in delayed recall than in immediate. Almost as large a number of visual words as pictures were recalled in correct order. The memory for words presented visually is significantly better than for words pronounced and heard. The superiority of the visual presentation of words may be due to a greater tendency to group or combine the successive words.

THUMB, A. and MARBE, K.—*Experimentelle Untersuchungen über die psychologischen Grundlagen der Sprachlichen Analogiebildung*. Leipzig, Engelmann, 1901. 2M.

THE first experimental investigation of the "characteristics a word-association must have in order to result in

an analogic change" (For definition of "analogic change" see review of Esper, p. 255). Words were selected which had become assimilated in form, and an inquiry made as to the principles governing these form changes. The authors found that words of a given category (*e.g.* verbs, adjectives, numerals) were associated predominantly with words of the same category, that in most categories reciprocal associations were formed, and that adjectives were usually associated with adjectives of opposite meaning. The more common the same response was to a group, the more rapidly it appeared. These findings agree closely with those reported as historical changes. Frequency of association is an important factor in determining the direction of analogic change. (From summary by Esper, *Language Monog.* No. 1, reviewed p. 255. Esper reports confirmation of the findings of Thumb and Marbe in an article "A Contribution to the study of Analogy," *Psych. Rev.*, 1918, pp. 468-487).

BAIR, J. H.—*The Practice Curve, A Study in the Formation of Habits.* Psy. Rev. Monog., Supp., No. 19, 1902. 70 pp.

CONTAINS a summary of experimental literature on the problem of habit formation, a description of an original experiment, and an important contribution to the theory of interference in learning. The first section contains reviews of the work of Ebbinghaus (1885), Münsterberg (1892), Müller and Schumann (1893), Smith (1896), Jost (1897), Calkins (1896), Breeze (1899), Bergstrom (1899), Cohn (1897), Bryan and Harter (1899), and Miss Steffins (1900). The experiment consisted of over a dozen parts, in some of which, subjects wrote on a typewriter certain exposed data, in others, they cancelled out numbers, in others, they sorted cards. Part of the problem

was the growth or improvement of a function with practice, but perhaps the chief value lies in the investigation of the operation of interference of two functions. If two alternative responses to a single stimulus are learned, can each one become automatic and remain so, or does learning one blot out to some degree the other? Bair concludes that there is no evidence in his investigation of a positive thing that might be called interference. Moreover two responses to the same stimulus may operate perfectly when well fixed, and without any check from the other. But learning one does not necessarily weaken the other. In the theoretical analysis Bair draws attention to the following facts: (1) It takes less time to relearn a habit each time we return to it. (2) Learning is very specific; we may be able to type out a certain sequence or pattern of symbols but not be able to name the series, *i.e.*, a reaction may be learned which is largely dependent on finger-responses, and this may be habitual, without our being able to vocalize it, or transfer it to our lips. A person may be able to speak well but not write well. We should practise the specific thing we want to know in the way we want to know it. (3) Inhibiting vocal response during the learning of verbal material acts as a distraction and lowers performance. (4) General bodily adjustments play an important part in attention, attitude and what we call "will". (5) We learn only by reacting; learning can never go on passively. (6) We cannot think except in terms of words by which we represent these thoughts. (7) "Through education, through the bringing together of experiences by means of language, things become associated which without language could never be experienced together or associated . . . . If it were not for language . . . our mental content and our associations would be comparatively meagre."

PETERSON, H. A.—*Recall of Words, Objects and Movements*. Psych. Rev. Mon. Supp., 1903, No. 17, pp. 207-233.

ACCEPTING the conclusion reached by Kirkpatrick (p. 299) and Calkins (p. 301) that objects are remembered better than their names in deferred recall, Peterson investigated the question as to whether this held true when the objects and names are coupled with strange and arbitrary symbols as in a foreign language vocabulary. This is approximately the pedagogical problem, whether a person should connect the foreign words with the familiar words or with the objects themselves. Similarly with verbs, should foreign language verbs be connected with familiar verbs or with movements. The "foreign symbols" were nonsense syllables or two-figure numbers. Peterson used four sets of materials, presenting them under definitely controlled conditions, and with six subjects. Retention was measured immediately and after 2, 9, and 16 days. Five subjects recalled objects better than nouns, and movements better than verbs—both when these were associated with unfamiliar symbols and when presented alone; one subject who recalled words presented alone as well as objects, found objects and movements of no assistance in learning. Indirect associations are influential in learning. The author concludes that in all learning involving the acquisition of a vocabulary, native or foreign, and for most persons, those associations are most easily and most effectively learned which involve linking the language symbol directly with the object or movement to which it refers.

SWIFT, E. J.—*Studies in the Psychology and Physiology of Learning*. A.J.P., 1903, pp. 201-251.

A STUDY of progress in learning to toss and catch balls (as



a form of skill), of shorthand (as a form of knowledge), and the control of the reflex wink (as a type of inhibition). Only the first two are reported here.

Six subjects practised daily tossing and catching balls. The results are given in learning curves, which show progress, at first slow then more rapid. This progress is not uniform or regular, but comes "by jumps". Learning was influenced by the physical condition of the subject, his interest in the task, and the relative freedom from fatigue.

As a second study the author learned shorthand one hour and a half daily for ten weeks. He was concerned with the general phenomena of learning, and noted that the learner seems to make no advance for a time and then spurts to a higher level, perhaps to fall back a little, but at all events not to go higher until he has strengthened his position here; there was no evidence of one or two special periods of delay in progress in which preparation is made for a higher order of habits (as Bryan and Harter had suggested). Consciousness discovers certain methods in operation and approves or disapproves of them, *i.e.*, accepts or rejects them. The effects of variations of maximum effort were apparent. Physical condition was clearly a determining factor in the results. Too much effort was a hindrance.

SWIFT, E. J.—*Beginning a Language. A Contribution to the Psychology of Learning. Stud. in Phil. and Psych. by Former Students of C. E. Garman* (pp. 297-313). Boston, Houghton, Mifflin, 1906. \$2.50.

THE author studied Russian without the aid of a tutor, using a text-book grammar method. He spent half an hour each day in the study of a lesson and 15 minutes in writing out exercises, with vocabulary of lesson concealed.

Arbitrary rules for scoring. Both objective and introspective records were kept. The former show that the curve of learning a language is very irregular, with sudden large drops and rises, and that plateaus (periods of no apparent improvement) are really periods of consolidation for further advance. Introspective notes indicate that periods of monotony are frequent; not too many new details can be introduced at once; periods of confusion are frequent; confidence does not come for weeks or even months; recognition of a word (the experience that he had seen it before) often came only with its pronunciation; the word was often recognized as familiar before its meaning became apparent; periods of excessive effort were of little value. Tests of progress should not be made when pupils are on a plateau, nor for two or three days after the plateau has been passed. The sudden clearing up of a language that many experience in a foreign country is, psychologically, passing from a plateau.

WITASEK, S.—*Ueber Lesen und Rezitieren in ihren Beziehungen zum Gedächtnis*. Ztsch. f. Psy. u. Phys. d. Sinnes, 1907, pp. 161-246.

INVESTIGATED the relative values of reading a list of ten nonsense syllables several times, and alternating readings with attempted recalls. Alternating recitation and reading gives results much superior to those obtained by continuous reading without recitation. Of successive recitations the first is the most valuable and each succeeding one is less so. This of course holds true for both reading and attempted recall.

BAGLEY, W. C. (Editor)—*The Educative Process*. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1905, etc. xix + 358 pp. \$1.25.

THIS book is intended to present a systematic and com-

prehensive view of the task that is to be accomplished by the school. It covers the field commonly included under the terms "general method", "method of recitation, theory and practice", etc. but deals with principles rather than details of device and method. The book is divided into 6 parts and each of these again into chapters.

*Part I. Functions of Education.* (pp. 1-65)

Education may be tentatively defined as the process by means of which the individual acquires experiences that will function in rendering more efficient his future action.

"True education, always personal, will develop the social consciousness and promote genuine social culture". The standard of social efficiency must be rigorously applied to the products of the school.

*Part II. The Acquisition of Experience.* (pp. 66-114)

The "raw materials" of experience are the elementary processes of consciousness,—sensation and affection. The making of these processes in their combinations significant,—the reading of "meaning" into them,—is technically termed "apperception".

Assimilation with reference to a primitive instinct is an apperception of low degree: assimilation with reference to an acquired need is an apperception of higher degree. The business of education is to replace the lower apperceptive systems with those of higher degree,—to develop the higher needs and cater to them.

*Part III. The Functioning of Experience.* (pp. 115-150)

Experience functions as a habit and as a judgment. Habit is nine-tenths of life, and the formation of habits should bear a somewhat corresponding ratio to the total task of education. The law of habit building might be summed up in the following formula: focalization plus drill in attention.

In habit the task is to make adjustments rigid, unchangeable; in judgment it is essential to insure the very reverse of this: to insure adaptability to different situations. There are two important types of judgment: (a) the practical judgment involving the conscious application of the concrete experience; and (b) the conceptual judgment, involving the conscious application of condensed experience.

For some time the word will tend to be supplemented by more or less concrete imagery revived from the particular experiences to which it is referred.

*Part IV. The Organization and Recall of Experience.* (pp. 151-202)

Of late the term "correlation" has largely replaced "concentration" to indicate the organization of studies in the school. The doctrine of correlation, while it recognizes the wisdom of relating different subjects of instruction to one another, also recognizes the virtue of a coherent organization within the limits of each subject.

*Part V. The Selection of Experiences for Educational Purposes, Educational Values.* (pp. 203-238)

The doctrine of formal discipline assumed that the mastery of a certain subject gave one an increased power to master other subjects. It is clear that there is a certain amount of truth in the statement, but unless the ideal has been developed consciously there can be no certainty that the power will be increased, no matter how intrinsically well the subject may have been mastered.

The main aim in education is to instil ideals that will function as judgments, and the subject-matter of instruction must be totally subservient to this aim. The period of adolescence represents the best time for the development of ideals, and since the emotional element is dominant in the development of ideals it follows that



mere didactic instruction from the intellectual standpoint is not sufficient.

*Part VI. The Transmission of Experience and the Technique of Teaching.* (pp. 238-349)

This final part considers the various ways in which the teacher may lead the child to acquire experiences.

Imitation is a primitive instinct which in early childhood operates without consciousness of purpose in the repetition of adjustments noted in others. Both the primitive and the acquired forms of imitation are valuable in initiating habits.

But the mind that has learned to lean helplessly upon objective factors will always be weak and flaccid. The petty pedagogical dogma that education should "begin in the concrete, continue in the concrete, and end in the concrete," is, probably, next to "education through play," the most pernicious proposition for which the new schoolcraft must render an accounting.

It is safe to lay down the general rule that the right of generalization belongs to the pupil. The pupil is not to be told but to be led to see.

The following chapters describe types of lessons,—study lesson, review lesson, etc.

The last section deals with the hygiene of the educative process.

KATZAROFF, D.—*Le Rôle de la Récitation comme Facteur de la Mémorisation.* Arch. de Psych., 1908, pp. 225-258.

WE must distinguish between silent recall and active recitation. The latter implies vocalization, thus introducing vocal and auditory elements into the learning. The writer investigated the relative values of recitation and reading in learning eight and ten pairs of nonsense

syllables. In all cases, the introduction of alternate recitations gave superior results to those obtained from readings only. Recommends following order:—reading, two recitations, two readings, two recitations, and so on.

THORNDIKE, E. L.—*Memory for Paired Associates*. Psy. Rev., 1908, pp. 122-138.

A STUDY of the objective achievements and subjective experiences of 22 students in learning the English meaning of 1200 German words, or as many of them as they did not know. The German words were picked at random, but an attempt was made to avoid compounds of words already learned, words likely to be well known, such as *nein*, and words etymologically related to their English equivalents. The words were divided into 120 sets of 10 each, and typed with the German word to the left, the English word to the right. Records were taken of the words previously known. Subjects learned at home, being directed: (I) to study approximately an hour at a time, and to note the exact time, (II) to use whatever method they preferred, (III) at the end of the practice period to take specially prepared lists of the German words only, and write the English equivalents from memory, (IV) to study 100 words each hour, thus completing the list once in 12 days, (V) to repeat this for another twelve hours and so on. Instructions were modified so as to allow a student to attempt to learn more than 100 in an hour if he wished. When students felt confident that they knew practically all the 1200 words they were tested with the entire list. Tests of 120 words were given twice during the learning. Permanence of retention was measured by a test one month after the end of all study by an individual. On the average, students learned about 1030 words in 30 hours of study. The range of individual differences was from

380 words learned in 42 hours to 1046 words learned in 18 hours. The words were retained to a surprising degree, considering the rapidity of the learning, being, on the average, 35% after 42 days. The quick learners are the good retainers. Ability to acquire new paired associates did not increase as the experiment continued—the number of words learned per hour was approximately uniform. The task did, however, become more interesting. Some idea of the range of ability in a single college class can be gained by comparing two extreme cases, such as Hy. and Ke., Hy. learned 41 words in an hour, learned 386 words in 42 hours so as to write them 4 days later and knew only 230 of them after 35 days. Ke. learned 95 words in an hour, 1131 words in 29 hours so as to write them 4 days later and remembered 856 of the 1131 words 37 days afterwards.

SEGAL, J.—*Ueber den Reproduktionstypus und das Reproduktion von Vorstellungen*. Arch. f. d. Ges. Psy., 1908, pp. 124-135.

SHOWS that as a rule the individual employs no single constant type of imagery but many types.

SWIFT, E. J.—*Mind in the Making, A Study in Mental Development*. New York, Scribners, 1908. \$1.50.

THE author compared the performance of 48 English-speaking children, some of whom had had one year of German and one year of Latin, some one year of Latin only and some no foreign language, when these pupils started to study Spanish. The "Latin" and "Latin and German" groups showed an initial superiority, but this decreased with practice, and was cut down from an average difference of about 25% in school grades at the end of the first week to about 8% at the end of the 15th

week. Swift attributes this largely to the carrying over of grammatical information from one language to another.

"In acquiring facility in the use of the Spanish gender, to cite one example, Latin would aid materially, since the majority of Latin feminines are feminine in Spanish, and a large part of Latin masculines and neuters become masculine in Spanish. The declension of Latin adjectives for gender and number, and their agreement, in these respects, with their nouns, would give Latin students a further advantage. The teacher of Spanish classes noted that more frequent and detailed explanations of case were needed by those who had not studied Latin. The order of words also was more readily mastered by those familiar with the Latin arrangement. Finally, in learning the conjugations and in understanding the significance of tenses, the assistance of the information acquired under these topics in Latin was found to be especially great. The indications, however, are that the higher records made by the Latin and German pupils were the result of the substance of language information obtained from these studies, rather than of any so-called 'language' or 'mental discipline'." (p. 251.)

BETTS, G. H.—*Distribution and Functions of Mental Imagery*. New York, Columbia University, 1909 (Columbia University Contrib. to Ed. Teachers Coll. ser., No. 26). 99 pp. 75 cents.

AN investigation into the types, vividness, and significance of imagery of college students, teachers and professional psychologists. The chief interest of this review is the extent to which types of people appear "eye-minded", "ear-minded", etc. The type theory of Galton (1880) postulates that much vivid imagery of a certain type, e.g. visual, is accompanied by meagre, dim imagery of all



other types. A second problem of interest is the correlation between school standing and vividness of imagery. The chief findings of Betts are: those who have vivid imagery in one sense rank high in the other senses as well, and those who rank low in any one sense rank low in all other senses. The correlations range by groups from  $+.46$  to  $+.85$ , the highest correlation being given by the 18 psychologists. This observation, since confirmed by other investigators, makes it impossible to consider many persons, if any at all, to belong to a pure type. Most individuals have, approximately, equally vivid or clear imagery in all sense departments. Imagery grows less vivid with age, with scientific training (Galton), and male subjects show less vivid imagery than females. With regard to the second problem, Betts found a slightly negative correlation between vividness of imagery and success in college studies,—the absence of vivid imagery is apparently not a serious handicap in such learning as a college course requires.

ANGELL, J. R.—*Methods for the Determination of Mental Imagery*. Psych. Monog., 1910, pp. 61-107.

IN a report to the American Psychological Association, Angell reviews the various tests that have been proposed for the investigation of mental imagery. Most of the article is concerned with the values and limitations of various objective and subjective tests. No purely objective methods of imagery analysis are at present reliable.

Imagery alters with slight alterations in conditions, *e.g.*, it is different when subjects know what they are to do when a picture is presented from what appears when they are ignorant of the requirements.

Some investigators have tried to determine all the types of imagery a person could use; others have tried

to ascertain the forms actually used in common mental processes of daily life. The visual and auditory types of Charcot and Galton will rarely be recognized in any adequate tests, and even the more recent distinction of "word-types" and "object-types" will be found extremely elusive in many cases. The shifting and substituting of one form of imagery for another under slight changes of conditions makes one skeptical of all rigid divisions into types of the familiar kind. While not denying the reality of types, Angell urges that they do not follow with any regularity the lines laid down by Charcot and Galton, and suggests that the theory of types represents rather problems for solution than solid foundations on which to build any pedagogical theory. A subject who uses visual-object imagery almost wholly in one class of tests may be equally wedded to auditory-motor word-imagery in another. No doubt imagery of one sensory mode often dominates, but certainly this cannot be easily established, and probably it is much less used than is generally assumed by Charcot.

BALBAN, A.—*Ueber den Unterschied des logischen und des mechanischen Gedächtnisses*. Ztsch. für Psychol., 1910, pp. 379-400.

Lists of words were learned and retention tested chiefly by the "Treffermethode." In one instance the words were learned in an isolated and mechanical fashion; in another the subjects were instructed to establish some sort of associative bond between pairs of words. Reproductions were taken immediately after the learning was completed. Associative learning was approximately eight times more effective than mechanical memorization. Seventy-five per cent. of the associated words were remembered, while only three per cent. of the non-

associated words were retained. This is suggestive of the results probably obtaining in learning vocabularies by mechanical and associative methods. It is true that some sort of association is always formed in vocabulary acquisition when the words are placed in juxtaposition, but the associations are of the mechanical sort rather than meaningful and purposive.

BERLAGE, F.—*Der Einfluss von Artikulation und Gehör beim Nachsingen von Stimmklängen*. Psych. Studien, 1910, pp. 39-140.

HAS attempted to analyse the internal mechanism of vocal pitch regulation, with particular attention to the influence of articulatory movements of the larynx itself and of the mouth.

He finds that accuracy in imitating the pitch of another's voice decreases regularly with increasing length of interval between the enunciation of a standard tone by an experimenter and repetition by a subject. Accuracy is greatest when the pause is from 1 to 2 seconds. The maximum time-lapse investigated was 30 seconds. When the tone is reproduced too quickly, say one-tenth of a second, the pitch is usually too low.

Berlage contends that the subject regulates the pitch of his voice by kinaesthetic sensations and auditory images, and not by the auditory sensations peripherally aroused.

The significance of this study is indirect. Its chief pedagogical implication is that it is better to insist on the pupil reproducing the sound of the teacher in a brief time after the sound has been pronounced. It is suggestive of further psychological enquiry on other factors affecting accurate imitation.

BINET, A.—*Les Idées Modernes sur les Enfants*. Paris, Flammarion, 1909. 346 pp. 3 fr. 50 c.

A PLEA for the recognition of individual differences in physical and mental traits between children of the same age, for the adaptation of class-room methods and procedures to these differences; and a summary of some experimental data obtained by Binet and others on these points. The book describes methods of measuring physical development, sensory acuity, intelligence, memory, and "les aptitudes". Binet made significant contributions in all these fields, and this book, with others from the same source, has been one of the most potent factors in emphasizing the need for, and devising a method for, the adaptation of the school programme to the individual child.

LIBBY, W.—*An Experiment in Learning a Foreign Language*. Ped. Sem., 1910, pp. 81-96.

THE problem proposed by the author was a comparison of the relative results obtained from the use of the word and of the short sentence (about five words long) as the unit of learning. The language chosen for study was Italian. The subjects were ten men and women, ranging from sophomore to graduate levels. Eight periods of instruction, twenty minutes long, were given on successive Mondays. At each period ten short sentences and ten detached words were presented. Retention was measured at the end of 48 hours and after four weeks. The tables show that with two exceptions there is a considerable superiority in the retention of short sentences over that for disconnected words. The conclusiveness of the study is questionable because of failure to control incentives or relative difficulties of subject matter used. This lack of control was due to the author's attempt to reproduce as far as possible the conditions of the school room,



PETERSON, H. A.—*The Influence of Complexity and Dissimilarity on Memory*. Psych. Rev. Monog. Supp., No. 49, 1910, 87 pp.

It is recognized that complex materials, up to a certain unknown limit, are retained better than simpler, and that similarity in materials may produce a lower score than variety. Complexity and variety are closely related, but not identical, and the study here reported is an experimental investigation designed to discover the effects of varying the two singly and in combination. The materials used consisted of language material—nonsense syllables, adjectives, sentences, etc., in various sizes, colours and styles of type and of forms in various colours. Learning and retention were tested, the longest interval being about two weeks. With many of the results and conclusions we are little interested in this review, important though they are for psychological theory and technique. The more significant findings for language teachers are: (1) With meaning held constant a few variations in size of type will make learning more effective, but if many changes are introduced the result may be injurious. (2) Mechanical changes in size and position of words have little permanent value. (3) Short sentences may be remembered as well as single words. (4) Objects, actions, and pictures are remembered better than words because they provide a greater variety of stimulations and call forth a greater variety of associations. (5) Words presented to several senses are remembered better than those presented to a single sense, because of the greater variety of stimuli.

WARTENSLEBEN, G. VON.—*Beiträge zur Psychologie des Uebersetzens*. Ztsch. f. Psychol., 1910, pp. 89-115.

AN investigation, carried on in Frankfort, of the mental

processes involved in translating Latin words and sentences into German. The sentences were alternately hard and easy, the aim being to discover whether or not different types of "Bewusstseinslagen" came in with different types of material. The students read the words or sentences to themselves and then translated. Conclusions are, of course, based on introspective reports. The consciousness of the German equivalent sometimes came, in part, before the Latin (foreign) word was pronounced; in part, coincident with its expression. Both direct and indirect translating occurred; some cases showed other conscious processes intervening between the reading of the Latin and the awareness of its German equivalent. The more experienced translators did not show this. Such a process is imagery; several observers reported auditory or motor imagery present (very little visual), but this decreased with increase of skill in translating. The experiences denoted by such terms as "familiarity", "meaning", "significance", might appear at any time,—during the reading of the Latin word, between the reading of the Latin word and the appearance in consciousness of the German equivalent, and even during and after the incidence of the German equivalent. These experiences are more ready and clearer when the words are in sentences than when alone. In mechanical translating both imagery and "Bewusstseinslagen" may be absent.

WINCH, W. H.—*Transfer of Improvement in Memory in School-Children*. Brit. Jour. Psy., 1910, pp. 386 ff.  
 SERIES of experiments made upon children in schools to determine, (1) whether there is any transfer of improvement from training in rote-memory of meaningless material to substance-memory for stories (*a*) by an auditory method and (*b*) by a visual method; (2) whether there

is any transfer of improvement from rote-memory for things with meaning, *e.g.*, poetry, to substance-memory for stories.

Three experiments were made with school children of an average age of ten to twelve. The material used for training half the students was, in two instances, lists of consonants, and in the third, poetry. The control group received no training. The learning periods lasted for several weeks.

In each of the three experiments all subjects reproduced more in substance-memory at the last test than at the first, whether practised or unpractised. This is accounted for by the author as "growth". But the practice groups made a better score in substance-memory in each experiment than the unpractised group. As the remainder of the school curriculum for all groups was the same, it is concluded that this extra efficiency is accounted for by improvement through training of rote-memory. Therefore practice in rote-memory, for meaningless or meaningful material, improves efficiency in substance-memory.

BUSEMANN, A.—*Lernen und Behalten*. Ztsch. f. Angew. Psychol., 1911, pp. 211-271.

AN experimental investigation into the question whether nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs of the vernacular and nonsense syllables can be learned with equal facility and can be retained equally well. The tables show that nouns are remembered best of all. The introspective reports suggest the probable reason for this,—the meanings of nouns are better understood than those of adjectives or verbs or adverbs, and of course, nonsense syllables have by definition no meaning.

GUTZMANN, H.—*Beobachtungen der ersten sprachlichen und stimmlichen Entwicklung eines Kindes*. Med.-Päd. Monatschrift, f.d. ges. Sprachheilkunde, 1911, pp. 27-32; 88-96; 97-111.

PHONOGRAPH records were taken to show the development of vocal and articulatory reflexes in the first year of a child's life. The records are extensive and are of especial value in indicating the development of pitch production in the early stages of vocal control, before the child has apparently imitated his associates to any great extent.

AALL, A.—*Die Bedeutung der Zeitperspektive bei der Einprägung für die Dauer der Gedächtnisbilde*. Ber. über d. V. Kongress f. exper. Psychol., 1912, pp. 237-241.

"AALL investigated the influence of temporal perspective upon the act of learning. Stories and numbers were presented to groups of children. In one case the children were led to expect that their remembrance would be tested on the following day; in another case they were told that the test would be deferred for several weeks; (both groups were tested immediately), and the results show that the material was much less completely remembered in the case where the learner expected that the test would take place in the near future." Quoted from Psych. Bull., 1913, 10, 339; rev. by J. W. Baird.

RICHARDSON, R. F.—*The Learning Process in the Acquisition of Skill*. Ped. Sem., 1912, pp. 376-394.

THIS article summarizes the conclusions reached from various experiments. The most important of these have been selected and arranged in tabular order. They are believed to be applicable to language learning.

(1) Good bodily condition, such as health, rest,



freshness, is a valuable aid to the learning process. Poor bodily and mental condition is apparent in the curve even where the condition is not noticed by the observer.

(2) Pleasurable feelings are a valuable aid. But pleasurable feelings are no criterion of progress as shown in the curve. Unpleasant feelings are usually accompanied by a lack of progress, but not always.

(3) A feeling of confidence in regard to the thing to be done is favourable to learning.

(4) As to how far feelings are a cause or an effect of efficient learning is not known.

(5) Progress in skill means an increase in ability to attend to more things with greater ease. The method of accomplishing this is through association and habit formation, which leave attention free from unessential details.

(6) Attention to the end to be attained is favourable to learning. Attention to the muscular movement to be made or the self-attentive attitude is unfavourable to the most efficient learning.

(7) Attention to a wrong habit or assumption is a hindrance to learning.

(8) Effort is favourable to learning, but it is controlled effort that counts. To spurt, if the conditions are favourable, educates. Too severe effort at times where conditions are unfavourable may defeat its end: yet on the whole it is effort that counts.

(9) In the acquisition of muscular skill habit formations take place to some extent without consciousness of them; but in more purely mental operations the learner is more fully aware of them.

(10) In general, the function of consciousness in the learning process is a corrective agency, *i.e.*, variations and habits acquired unconsciously are selected or eliminated in the light of the end to be attained.

(11) The value of a habit in the attainment of skill consists in the readiness with which it may be broken up when its purpose is served, allowing new habits to form.

(12) The value of an assumption in more purely mental operations consists in its tentative character, a readiness to disappear when no longer useful.

(13) The learning process is irregular, and the more complex the learning the greater the irregularity.

A selected bibliography is provided.

HENMON, V. A. C.—*The Relation between Mode of Presentation and Retention*. Psych. Rev., 1912, pp. 79-96.

PART I reviews experimental investigations on the problem. Part II reports author's own experiment and findings. Studies have been made in which digits, nonsense material and sense material have been presented visually, auditorily, with and without pronunciation, and in various combinations. No single statement can summarize the conclusions, unless it is that they are contradictory on all points and for all materials. In Henmon's investigation, six graduate students learned concrete nouns, two-place numbers and nonsense syllables. The results of one, two, and three presentations were compared. The scores are the percentage of amount retained. Henmon found that for all subjects, all materials, and with one, two, or three presentations, the auditory method of presentation was superior to visual, to visual-auditory, and to visual-auditory-motor methods. Visual-auditory is superior to visual presentation alone. Performances by all methods are highly correlated; superiority in one indicates practically the same degree of superiority in any other. A bibliography is appended.

KELLEY, T. L.—*The Association Experiment, Individual Differences and Correlations*. Psych. Rev., 1913, pp. 479-504.

SUGGESTS the use of association tests for study of mental types, vocational guidance, etc. Reports that certain types of association are more highly correlated than others with success in foreign language, *e.g.*, recall of a particular situation, synonyms, subordinates. The author assumes that the reason for this finding is that success in foreign language learning requires a large vocabulary (synonyms) and recall of particular words, sentences, etc. Associations that are believed to indicate small vocabulary correlate negatively with foreign language standing.

McKEE, RALPH E.—*Ancient vs. Modern Languages as a Preparation for English*. Ped. Sem., 1913, pp. 45-47.

A REPORT on the English marks of students of three successive years in the University of Maine, comparing those who had taken classics in their high school courses with those who had taken moderns. Only Latin and French are customarily taught in the preparatory schools tributary to the university, and all students, candidates for a degree, receive the same training in English in the freshman and sophomore years. If Latin were better than a modern language as a training for English, then those who have had three years of Latin in the high school should be superior to those who have had three years of moderns, or one year of Latin and two years of moderns. Exactly the reverse is found to be the fact, and we must conclude that the advantage, if any, is slight and is in favour of modern languages. A slight increase in the quality of the work in English as the total amount of foreign language training increases is also to be noted. Latin deserves the attention of students, but only on the same basis as other languages.

MEUMANN, E.—*The Psychology of Learning*. New York, D. Appleton & Co., 1913. xix + 393 pp. \$2.00.

THIS translation is still the most complete summary of the experimental work on memory carried on in Germany up to 1908. Few experimental procedures are given in detail. Much attention is devoted to the theory of types which he applies to (1) learning, (2) ideation. The learning types are the *rapid* and the *slow*, and any one individual is about equally rapid or slow in learning nonsense syllables, or prose, or vocabularies. Some rapid learners retain well over a long period, some for only a much shorter period. These two groups may be considered sub-types. Rapid learners learn more quickly, are more easily distracted, more enthusiastic, re-learn more quickly after a period has elapsed, adapt themselves more readily, but do not hold a set for as long a time. In type of ideational process Meumann recognizes the concrete and the verbal. In this he was much influenced by the work of Charcot, Dodge, Galton and Ballet. The concrete type usually employs visual imagery dominantly and is a slow, sure learner. The verbal is a fast, less accurate learner. The types may be due to congenital bent, or training, or a combination of both. The author is interested in the pedagogical implications of the experiments reported in the text, and these are clearly, but rarely dogmatically stated. The book reviews many of the experiments on which Handschin and other writers have based their conclusions as to method. An extensive bibliography is appended.

PYLE, W. H.—*Economical Learning*. J. Educ. Psy., 1913, pp. 148-158.

STUDENTS were required to transcribe passages of prose into an artificial language made up of 26 characters (substitution test). The aim was to determine the most effective learning period. After an initial practice period,



lasting 16 days, students worked in 15, 30, 45 and 60 minute periods, and the decision as to the optimum length of practice was determined by the record obtained compared with that in the control period. The 30 minute period proved the most effective.

WILLIAMS, R. A.—*What Command of English Should a Child Possess before Beginning the Study of a Foreign Language*. Mod. Lang. Teach., 1913, pp. 58-68.

No pupil should begin to learn a foreign language until he has a very considerable command of his mother tongue. Such a command is certainly not obtained before the twelfth year, and in average instances probably not before the thirteenth or fourteenth year.

The English teacher who has had his pupils under observation during the first school years ought to be consulted before the child is started on a foreign language.

The gains from deferring the start in foreign tongues to the later date would be, that people who are unfitted to learn foreign languages by nature would escape them entirely; pupils would gain by a much more intensive training in English; foreign language teachers (both modern and classical) would have much better prepared and more matured students to work with, and a proper co-ordination between linguistic studies could be attained.

WOODWORTH, R. S.—*A Contribution to the Question of "Quick Learning, Quick Forgetting"*.

AN Italian-English vocabulary of 20 pairs of words was learned from auditory presentation. After one reading the experimenter gave the Italian words as stimuli, allowing 3-5 seconds for each response, prompting and correcting, and so continuing until each correct response had been given once. Overlearning was avoided by dropping each

pair from the list as soon as it could be reproduced once, but after all responses had been correctly given the experimenter read the list once more. After an interval of 2-20 hours the experimenter again gave the Italian words as stimuli, and scored the correct responses. He enquired also into the type of association aids used in remembering any of the pairs. Under these conditions the more quickly learned pairs of words were the better retained.

Of the pairs learned in 1 reading 73% were recalled after interval.

"	"	"	"	"	2	"	72%	"	"	"	"
"	"	"	"	"	3	"	63%	"	"	"	"
"	"	"	"	"	4	"	58%	"	"	"	"
"	"	"	"	"	5	"	38%	"	"	"	"
"	"	"	"	"	6-11	"	27%	"	"	"	"

The pairs learned most quickly were those in which some association was established. But when the unaided pairs are considered by themselves, the quickly learned are the better retained, and the quickness or slowness of learning seems to make more difference to retention in unaided than in aided learning. Quick learning and association both favour retention. (From Report of Sec'y. Amer. Psych. Association, 1913. New Haven Meeting.)

LYON, D. O.—*The Relation of Length of Material to Time Taken for Learning and the Optimum Distribution of Time.* J. Educ. Psych., 1914, pp. 85-91, 155-163.

REVIEWS the results obtained by previous investigators. Ebbinghaus found that the number of repetitions increased much more rapidly than the length of the material to be learned, e.g., 7 nonsense syllables could be learned in 1 repetition, requiring 3.5 seconds; 12 syllables required 17 repetitions, 102 seconds; while 35 syllables required 55 repetitions, 990 seconds. Binet's results are similar. Radossawljewitch and Meumann found on the contrary that the number of practice periods did not increase as

rapidly as the length of the task. Lyon studied nonsense syllables, digits, prose and poetry. He investigated at the same time the best distribution of learning time in the hope of finding an optimum distribution. He learned a 6 line stanza as quickly as a 4 line stanza. Practically no difference appeared in the total time required to learn a unit of poetry when it was learned by the "once-per-day" method and by the "continuous" method. It was found to be markedly advantageous to distribute the time when the material being learned was non-coherent material, *e.g.*, nonsense syllables and digits. In the former case the time increased in arithmetical ratio as the length of the passage; in the latter, the time increase was the square of the ratio of length of passages. Visual presentation seemed to be better than auditory, but a combination of the two was more economical than either, and gave better results for delayed recall. Meaningful material, *e.g.*, poetry, is learned in larger units than is non-meaningful. Persons who had lately been taught mnemonic systems endeavoured to apply them when they were not useful. In general the most economical method of study is to distribute the learning over a rather lengthy period.

PANICELLI, J. B.—*Influenza della cosiddetta "volontà di apprendere" sui processi di apprendimento*. Riv. di psicol., 1914, pp. 95-112.

AN investigation into the influence of attitude,—the "will-to-learn". The writer compared results from auditory presentation of sense material. In one case pupils were warned that they would be asked to reproduce it. In another case this warning was omitted. The learning was 28% more effective in the former case. The will to learn was more effective in girls and in older and more intelligent children.

PYLE, W. H.—*Concentrated vs. Distributed Practice*. J. Educ. Psy., 1914, pp. 247 ff.

AN investigation of the value of distribution of learning. Students were required to transcribe passages of prose into 26 arbitrary characters. Daily practice was found to be more advantageous than twice-a-day practice or practice on alternate days. Fourteen hours distributed in half-hour periods once a day were more advantageous than an equivalent number of half-hour periods accumulated in a single day, with thirty minute rest periods.

WINCH, W. H.—*Further Experimental Researches on Learning to Spell*. J. Educ. Psyc., 1914, pp. 449-460.

Two lists of words of equal difficulty were prepared, one list was learned by a silent visual method, the other list by a combined visual-auditory-vocal-motor method. The results show that the visual method was superior throughout. The author's explanation is that this is due to the "interference of the teacher's direction".

JUDD, C. H.—*Psychology of High School Subjects*. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1915. (Revised ed. 1927, xiv + 543 pp.), (Chap. X. Foreign Languages). \$2.15.

AN important critical examination of methods, in which attention is drawn to points frequently overlooked in discussions. Languages, especially classical, have borne an undue share of criticism on the question of formal discipline, chiefly because they are the most mature in method and in pedagogical theory. This maturity makes them intolerant of the demand that they provide something of intellectual value each year; they insist that their values can be obtained only with a long period of training. The value of foreign languages in making clearer the understanding of the vernacular will doubtless survive as one



of the most important reasons for teaching foreign languages. Grammar is an analytic study of value under certain conditions; the questions are as to when and how the analysis should be made. Advocates of the natural method "overlook the fact that the child requires eight or ten years of incessant practice to gain even a tolerable command of his own tongue". The little child learns by imitation; the boy of maturer years does not imitate. Pronunciation is not contagious. The phonetic study of sounds has great advantages for mature students. The "psychological" method lays emphasis on sensory experiences as giving words their value and meaning, and on teaching words only as parts of sentences. The author points out in criticism of this method that the child soon learns (in the vernacular) to use words as substitutes for objects, and word-images for object-images, and it is a serious error to attempt to force a child back to the primitive stage. Associations should be between words, not word-objects. The direct method is of value in infancy; the analytic methods are of chief value later. At what stage the direct method should diminish and the analytic method increase is an urgent, but unsolved problem. There is no single best method; the one to use varies with the purpose and the maturity of students.

MOULD, M., TREADWELL L., and WASHBURN M. F.—*The Influence of Suppressing Articulation on the Favorable Effect of Distributing Repetitions*. Amer. J. Psychol., 1915, pp. 286-288.

THE experiment consisted in memorizing nonsense syllables in various ways. Articulation was emphasized, voluntarily inhibited and inhibited by distraction. The advantage of distributed repetitions was much greater where articulatory responses were emphasized.

STARCH, DANIEL.—*Some Experimental Data on the Value of Studying Foreign Languages.* Sch. Rev., 1915, pp. 697-703.

REVIEWS some experiments made to discover the influence of foreign language training upon general scholastic standing, in which it appeared that students who took Latin and those who took German during their college courses obtained approximately the same average college grades; the influence of Latin on the size of one's English vocabulary, where a positive gain in the high school student's vocabulary could be attributed to Latin, and the influence of foreign language training on grammar. In this instance it appeared that knowledge of grammatical rules was clearly increased, but no improvement was apparent in the correctness of usage of English grammar. Concludes that the contributions of one language to another are incidental and unimportant, at least with present methods of teaching.

ZUCCARI, G. RIC.—*Ricerche sulla importanza dei movimenti articolatori per la lettura e l'apprendimento a memoria.* R. di Psicol., 1915, 11, pp. 187-195.

TEN subjects of different ages, sex and degree of education learned selections of prose and poetry under natural conditions and under conditions where articulation was inhibited by counting aloud. It was found that memorizing was impaired,—requiring about 70% more time for memorizing than when articulation was allowed. Zuccari anticipated the criticism that the lowered efficiency is due to distractions, and in a second experiment demonstrated that the impairment was due not to distractions but to the non-participation of articulation.

BENNETT, F.—*The Correlations between Different Memories.* J. Exp. Psychol., 1916, p. 404.

A LABORATORY investigation to find if there is any existing correlation between amount that can be learned at a single presentation and the time required to learn a long series. Material, presented both visually and auditorily, consisted of nonsense syllables, numbers, concrete nouns, narratives and expositions. The results are worked out and expressed as coefficients of correlation. Nine subjects only were used.

Nouns presented visually for mediate reproduction show high correlations with other memory functions and are the best index of general memorial efficiency.

High correlation appears between mediate and immediate retention if measurements are sufficient in number and variety; is higher for connected than for disconnected materials.

Mediate learning of both disconnected and connected material is better with visual presentations.

No constant relation was found between speed and accuracy.

BOSWELL, F. P. and FOSTER, W. S.—*On Memorizing with the Intention Permanently to Retain*. Amer. Jour. of Psychol., 1916, pp. 420-426.

AN investigation into the learning of Chinese-English vocabulary, presented in pairs, visually to four students. The purpose of the experiment was to compare the results obtained when students learned with intention to retain permanently (P. series) with those obtained when they learned for immediate recall only (T. series). Both series were tested at the end of 5 minutes and at the end of two weeks. The students were asked not to think of the materials in the meantime.

The words were presented in pairs on a kymograph. Eight series of sixteen pairs each were presented. The

Chinese word on the right and its English equivalent to the left were presented simultaneously for 2.5 seconds. Each series was presented sixteen times at one practice period. Observers read the pairs aloud. Each observer learned two series on each of four successive days; one series for temporary and the other for permanent retention. After a series had been learned, five minutes were allowed to elapse and then the learning of that series was tested. Ten minutes elapsed between the testing of one series and the learning of a second.

In the tests the Chinese words were exposed in haphazard order and the observers gave the English equivalents. The times of the responses were taken with a stop-watch, but there were instructions to take all the time required to make a correct recall. Both P. and T. series were tested in this manner for the sake of comparison.

After an interval of 2 weeks a mixed series composed of the Chinese words from both P. and T. series was presented and the English equivalents were required. An introspective report was also required.

*Table I.*—Results of tests after 5 minutes. W indicates wrong replies and R right replies. O is the number of instances in which no replies were given. Tr, Tw and To are averages of the corresponding reaction times expressed in seconds.

Observer	R	Tr	W	Tw	O	To
Temporary						
E	59	3.0	1	40.0	4	38.5
W	61	2.9	1	15.0	2	24.0
D	52	5.0	6	8.2	6	15.5
L	59	3.5	2	3.0	3	41.3
Permanent						
E	61	2.5	1	2.0	2	42.5
W	53	2.7	3	7.7	8	32.1
D	47	3.4	3	16.0	14	16.3
L	58	2.7	4	9.0	2	46.5



Table II.—Results after a lapse of two weeks.

Temporary	R	Tr	W	Tw	O	To
E	22	9.1	2	28.5	40	42.3
W	9	7.7	9	11.7	36	34.5
D	18	8.1	1	3.0	45	20.3
L	41	4.4	11	4.5	12	6.5
Permanent						
E	20	18.3	5	25.8	39	46.1
W	7	8.3	17	20.0	40	35.0
D	21	10.3	3	7.0	40	17.9
L	48	5.5	6	4.3	10	5.6

Writer discounts E's results and W's because E recalled many of the words in the T series and re-learned them for personal benefit and because W found great difficulty in learning the P series.

Conclusions from these results are that "the intent to learn for permanent retention brings about the desired end in the case of learning a vocabulary."

From the introspection of the subjects the following report was made concerning the manner in which the reply word occurred. 73% of responses were of the vocal-motor type in both P and T series,—the mere silent reading of the Chinese word seemed to touch off the appropriate response. The subjects were more impressed by similarities than by differences in learning the two series, which fact may be due to the difficulty of changing from one task to another within the limits of an hour.

Remark: There does not seem to be a sufficient number of subjects to draw valid conclusions, especially when reports of two out of four are considered unreliable.

BROWN, H. C.—*Language and the Associative Reflex*.  
 Jour. of Philos., Psychol. and Scientific Methods,  
 1916, pp. 645-649.

THE thesis of this paper is, that words, spoken or written, are objects that have become so thoroughly associated

with other objects or situations that, in the absence of them, they can evoke responses, both emotional and practical, which would be evoked by the things themselves.

Certain definite tendencies are apparent in modern languages: the tendency to make pronunciation more easy, so as to lessen the muscular effort; ancient languages have several forms where modern languages content themselves with fewer; forms originally kept distinct are in course of time confused either through a phonetic obliteration of differences in the endings, or through analogical extension of the functional sphere of one form.

While our words are better adapted to express abstract things and to render concrete things with definite precision, they are comparatively colourless. The old words, on the contrary, spoke more immediately to the senses, they were manifestly more suggestive, more graphic and pictorial.

The phonetic simplification is a special case of the simplification in movement as any acquired mode of action becomes habit.

CURTIS, J. N.—*The Relative Amounts of Fatigue Involved in Memorizing by Slow and by Rapid Repetition.*

Psychol. Rev. Monographs, 1916, pp. 153-192.

A COMPARISON of the fatigue effects of memorizing normal series of nonsense syllables by slow and rapid repetition. The question in regard to fatigue is two-fold:

(1) Is fatigue more apparent when the subject memorizes by rapid repetition than when he memorizes by slow repetition?

(2) If so, is the fatigue of memorizing at a rapid rate so great as to cancel the time-saving effect of rapid repetition within the limits of a laboratory appointment lasting three quarters of an hour?

Seven women students in psychology cooperated. The tests employed for measuring fatigue were both mental and physical. Three methods of distributing learning periods were used. The final conclusion of the investigator was that rapid repetition seemed somewhat more fatiguing than slow repetition but that her data were inadequate to solve the problem. One difficulty in carrying out a crucial experiment in the academic year was that students were not available who were willing to be incapacitated for several hours from further academic work.

LYON, D. O.—*The Relation of Quickness of Learning to Retentiveness*. Arch. of Psych., 1916, pp. 1-60.

TAKING 426 subjects, 14-20 years of age, of a wide educational and social range, the writer had them study nonsense syllables, disconnected words, and selections of prose and poetry. He measured the total learning time and the retention as evidenced by free reproduction and re-learning in one to ten weeks.

He concluded that the relation of rapidity of learning and excellence of retention cannot be stated in a single law: when material is logically coherent rapid learning is more retentive, but when the material is not logically coherent the reverse is true; individual differences in learning are greater than individual differences in retentiveness; women and girls learn more rapidly and retain less efficiently than men and boys; the rapid learner tends to employ rhythm, to make use of the "whole" procedure, and to use a single type of imagery.

MURPHY, H. H.—*Distribution of Practice Periods in Learning*. Jour. Educ. Psych., 1916, pp. 150-163.

To test the relative merits of practice daily, and on al-

ternate days in such muscular activity as javelin throwing. His results seem to show that learning periods can be distributed by giving practice on alternate days and even weekly without any loss in learning.

FREEMAN, F. N.—*How Children Learn*. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1917. xiv + 322 pp. \$1.60.

A WELL known text-book on the psychology of learning. The contributions of hereditary capacities and tendencies are first examined in some detail, separate chapters being devoted to play, imitation and self-assertion, and instinctive social attitudes. In chapter VII the author discusses speech development. One of the values of foreign language training is that it makes more clearly conscious the structure of the vernacular. Learning to speak, as the learning of any other skill, proceeds by trial-and-error, or trial-and-success method. Imitation and verbal guidance may be of assistance in the process, but reflection or thinking of how a response should be made is of limited significance. Repetition is necessary, but as Bryan and Harter point out "it is only intense effort that educates". Several rules for effective memorizing are given, and may with advantage be quoted here: (1) get the meaning clearly in mind, (2) make as many repetitions as are necessary to fix the arbitrary associations, (3) continue learning beyond the point at which the material can be reproduced, *i.e.*, overlearn, (4) distribute the repetitions, (5) attempt to recall during learning, (6) avoid false associations, (7) learn under some pressure.

A chapter on transfer indicates that some transfer is usually found, but that it is far from complete and difficult to predict. A final chapter is entitled "Mental Economy and Hygiene".



GATES, A. I.—*Recitation as a Factor in Memorizing.*

Arch. of Psych., 1917, p. 40.

INVESTIGATION made with public school children, grades 1 to 8, approximately 300 in number and 15 adults. Used both nonsense syllables and bibliographical statements. All other variables were controlled. Author compared reading over and over, with reading followed by attempted recitation and self-correction from copy. Amount of time on reading ranged from 100% to 20% of total learning time. He found a marked advantage of recitation method, which increased steadily as amount of time on reading decreased until not more than two-fifths of time was spent on it. Advantage of recitation method was greater for delayed (3-4 hours) than for immediate recall. Advantage greater for nonsense than for sense material. The advantages of recall are due to: articulation, accent and rhythm, localization, noting of meanings and relations with unusual characteristics of material, grouping, confidence, increased satisfaction from knowledge of success, and absence of monotony.

GLOVER, M.—*Success in English as a Criterion of Future Success in Elementary Foreign Language.* Sch. and Soc., 1917, pp. 683-688.

REPORTS a study of the inter-correlations between marks in foreign language, English, arithmetic and history. The purpose of the investigation was to discover a basis for prognosis of probable success in a foreign language. (The factor of intelligence was not controlled.)

The coefficient between foreign language and English is  $.632 \pm .04$ . The explanation for this significant correlation, it is suggested, lies in the fact that the direct method in foreign language is used throughout in teaching French and German. The conversational treatment of

foreign tongues involves all the principles, in a very elementary form, that should govern our instruction in the composition of the vernacular.

The average of the rank in English and the mean rank in all subjects is likely to be a better basis for predicting the pupil's future success in a foreign language than the rank in English alone. (No evidence is given in the article on which to base this position).

HENMON, V. A. C.—*The Relation between Learning and Retention and Amount to be Learned*. J. Exp. Psy., 1917, pp. 476-484.

EXPERIMENT primarily to test the validity of Ebbinghaus's conclusion that the difficulty of learning increases proportionately with amount to be learned. Radossawljewitch and Meumann have both produced experimental evidence that casts doubt upon this thesis.

Experiment consisted of learning nonsense syllables, verse and prose, the latter two by the "whole" method. The nonsense syllables were presented by the Ranschburg apparatus. The mode of presentation of prose and poetry is not mentioned. The results of the tests indicate:

(1) That as regards number of repetitions, the difficulty of learning does not increase proportionally with the increase of amount to be learned.

(2) The number of repetitions for re-learning decreases proportionately with the amount to be learned.

(3) The per cent. saved after 24 hours increases slightly with the increase of amount learned.

(4) Although not mentioned by the author, the *time per unit* for the first learning and for re-learning would be greater as the amount to be learned increases.

REED, H. B.—*A Repetition of Ebert and Meumann's Practice Experiment on Memory*. Jour. Exp. Psychol., 1917, pp. 315-346.

THE primary purpose of this experiment was to verify or refute the conclusions which the authors of the original experiment had drawn from it in 1904. Secondly, some conclusions were drawn as regards economy of learning, and thirdly, the effect of quantity of material upon the memory-span. The subjects tested were divided into two groups, 8 in the experimental-group, 6 (later 5) in the control-group. The control-group took only the tests, the test-group took practice exercises consisting of learning and re-learning twelve-syllable nonsense series, some of them twice daily, others daily. The tests themselves were taken the first five days; then ensued fifteen days of practice for the test-group; then both groups took the tests. The tests consisted of various memory-span tests and learning tests. Both kinds contained nonsense series and meaningful series of several kinds, including a prose passage. Some of the material was read aloud, some presented visually. The scoring methods were calculated to measure in several ways any possible kind of learning. The results did not bear out the conclusions of Ebert and Meumann. Special practice in the experiment had no general transfer effect; there was no evidence of a general "memory" training. This result may have been due to stricter controls.

The second problem was to determine the most economical method of learning. During the test various methods were tried: A, the whole method; B, the part method; C, the same as A with a pause at the end of 4 syllables; D, the same as A with a longer pause at the end of 6 syllables. In learning time, B is the most economical, but if learning plus re-learning time is taken into account,

D is the most economical method. An analysis of results suggests to the author that the most economical method is by grouping the material according to the individual memory-span, thus combining the A and B methods. The results as a whole do not bear out the general preference for the whole method.

The third problem was to determine the influence of quantity of material presented upon the memory-span.

The essential significance of the conclusions is that in learning a quantity of material the mind must proceed by steps. The extent of the step is as much limited as the bodily step. The significance of this for economical learning is that learning can be done only by parts and bears relationship to the memory-span.

BRANDENBURG, G. C.—*Psychological Aspects of Language*. Jour. of Ed. Psychol., 1918, pp. 313-332.

A STATISTICAL study of the relation of language to general intelligence. The author formulated several specific problems:

1. What is the relation between the extent of a pupil's vocabulary and his scholastic attainments?

2. What correlation exists between accuracy and precision in the knowledge and use of words, and vocabulary range?

3. What are the chief factors in the acquisition and use of words?

4. To what extent does present-day school-room practice facilitate the pupil's linguistic development?

The materials used comprised a test containing two hundred words from Webster's *Academic Dictionary*. The words were selected at equal intervals throughout the dictionary. The test was printed in the form of a four-page folder, the words being arranged as nearly as possible



in order of difficulty. Two thousand pupils of 68 different classes from the second to the twelfth grades in 16 schools of 6 different school systems located in four different states were given the test. The places in which pupils lived varied from an agricultural town of 1200 people to a city of 30,000.

The author assumed that the best test as to whether a word is sufficiently well-known by a pupil to be credited to him is his ability to use it correctly in a sentence. The children were instructed: "In the blank space after each word that you know, write a sentence using the word correctly. Place a cross before each word that you do not know. For seventh grade pupils and above omit the first 25 words." On the last page of the folder were spaces for the pupils' grades in English, manual training, oral expression and average scholarship, with a request that these grades be supplied by the teacher.

The principle which was followed in scoring tests was that the attempted use of a word is an indication in itself that the word is known, and unless the use in the sentence was such as to indicate that it was not known, the pupil was given credit for it. The statistical data showed that the average gain in total vocabulary per grade was approximately 1400 words. This agrees on the whole with a previous study by Kirkpatrick. Significant sex differences appear in total vocabulary.

The tables show that vocabulary correlates highly (average .76) with school grades in language work and on the average about .63 with general scholarship. English vocabulary and motor ability as measured by manual training marks are not highly correlated. The correlation of verbal ability and general intelligence in a limited group was .69. (This section of the study demonstrates the complexity of the problem involved in an analysis of

abilities in various school subjects. High correlations may suggest great similarity, and low or negative correlations may imply that the abilities involved are distinct and separate, but median correlations do not admit of any interpretation).

A second phase of the investigation was an analysis of the possible factors that contribute to the acquisition of a vocabulary. The most prominent environment factors are: the home, the community, reading facilities and travel. An effort was made to study two groups of children to determine what part each of these factors had played.

Although the home is generally an important factor in the acquisition of a large vocabulary, it is not in all cases the determining factor, and the community is much less significant.

Through a study in which the time spent in reading, the kind of reading, enjoyment in reading, were considered, the following facts were ascertained: boys read a greater variety than girls; girls read more than boys; boys read more humorous material, girls more light fiction; no pupil ranked high in vocabulary who did not read a variety of literature; no pupil ranked high who was not a great reader; some who were great readers ranked low in vocabulary; no one ranked low in vocabulary who read a great variety of literature.

It is apparently the quality of the reading rather than the quantity that counts. With regard to travel, the theory is expressed that travel tends to more thoroughly define and fixate images than reading, but no data are produced to support this contention.

A vague and confused sort of generalization takes place in the child mind before he uses language in a direct manner; speech and thought thereafter develop side by side in the child, each aiding and re-enforcing the other.

From a number of investigations it has been determined that normal children from 3-5 years of age utter, under ordinary circumstances, from 1000-1400 words per hour during the entire day.

The author has verified these results by his own investigations and suggests that there is too much repression as regards communication in the present school system.

DAVIDSON, P. E.—*Concerning Mental Discipline and Educational Reform*. Sch. and Soc., 1918, pp. 1-8.

THE question of transferability is not the question of formal discipline. The existence of transferability carries nothing in itself as to the amount or significance of the transferred effects in any concrete situation. The amount of transfer in any instance is a matter of experimentation, and is known to vary with situations and qualities. The significance of transfer effects is as great as,—and no greater than,—the importance of the transferred qualities in the economy of life.

No one can now maintain that any exercise or study is capable of inducing, or even encouraging, all habits and attitudes of the right kind.

The point at issue is not whether the study of Latin bears very specifically upon the problem of learning algebra, but that these two very different exercises supplement one another in helping to round out an educational scheme designed to furnish *general* mental discipline through a combination of courses that experience has approved.

DEARBORN, W. F. and BREWER, J. M.—*Methods and Results of a Class Experiment on Learning*. J. Educ. Psych., 1918, pp. 63-82.

AN experiment to determine the effects of practice in

relation to, (1) transfer or interference and, (2) individual differences. Thirty-five students in psychology were divided on the basis of five learning tests into two approximately equal groups. One group was given twenty-two practices, distributed over eleven days, in substituting code letters for English letters; the other group acted as a control and was given no special training. Both groups were then re-tested by the same tests as were originally used. The materials used in testing and training are described in the article. The majority of the practices were taken at home, each one lasting five minutes. Practice in substituting code letters for English letters had practically no influence on the ability to substitute digits for English letters, and interfered slightly with ability in translating the code back into English. It is apparent that no prediction can be made as to the extent to which one ability will influence another ability except on the basis of experimental evidence. Within the practised group the students tended to hold the same relative rank in the first as in the last trials of the practice,—the same amount of practice does not do away with individual differences, does not make persons more like each other.

HANDSCHIN, C. H.—*A Test for Discovering Types of Learners in Language Study*. M. L. J., 1918, pp. 1-4.

ON the theory that some students are motor-minded, others are visually-minded, and so on, the author proposes a series of tests for the determination of the types. Two of these call for auditory presentation of English words and sentences, two for the visual presentation of Esperanto words and sentences with their English equivalents. Reproductions of amounts learned are to be made immediately. By combining, subtracting, or comparing, the scores on the individual tests, the "type" of learner



can be detected, and his linguistic capacity relative to his fellows discovered. Pedagogy must conform to the type, *e.g.*, the visually-minded must be taught through the eye. No experimental results.

INGLIS, A.—*Principles of Secondary Education*. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1918. xvi + 741 pp. \$3.00.

CHAPTER XIII, The Place of Foreign Languages in the Programme of Studies, gives an admirably lucid and well balanced consideration of the problem. In evaluating the place of any school subject in the secondary school curriculum, Inglis insists on differentiating between direct and indirect values. In so far as this applies to foreign languages it involves differentiating between those which arise from the relatively direct and specific use of the foreign language as a medium of communication for the expression of the user's thoughts, or for the interpretation of the thoughts of others, and those which arise indirectly from the study of the foreign language, either by the effect of that study on the language-thought relation, or through the improvement of certain general mental traits.

Probably not 5 per cent. of the pupils in the public secondary schools should study a foreign language for commercial or vocational purposes. The values of the study of the language and literature of a foreign people in giving increased knowledge of the life, customs, institutions, and thought of that people, may perhaps be equally well achieved for high school pupils by a study of translations. The author considers that at present neither psychological theory nor experimental evidence affords satisfactory criteria whereby to estimate the transfer values of the study of foreign language.

The very facility with which the pupil employs his

mother tongue in ways adequate for the ordinary affairs and conveniences of everyday life is one of the greatest handicaps to the attempt to convert it into a more effective intellectual instrument. The pupil rebels against attempts to improve an instrument which is quite satisfactory to his immature mind.

Experimental investigations on the relative values of foreign languages as studies are more numerous than valuable or reliable.

If direct values alone are to determine the aims of foreign language instruction, there can be no doubt that the so-called "direct methods" in some form must obtain. On the other hand if the aims are dominantly determined by the indirect values, greater importance must be attached to the use of the mother tongue and to translation. In the majority of classes it is altogether probable that methods of teaching are demanded which emphasize the best elements of the "direct method" without sacrificing the importance of the mother tongue, and without neglecting the values of translation.

PATTERSON, T. L.—*Pedagogical Suggestions from Memory Tests*. J. Educ. Psy., 1918, pp. 497-510.

A SERIES of investigations concerned with the most effective method of presentation of material to be memorized. Material used consisted of sounds and digits. The subjects ranged from 2nd grade pupils in the elementary school to university students. The chief conclusions reached by the author were: (1) visual qualities of words are remembered better than their sounds. The method of investigation was not unambiguous, and the results reported show only small differences between the methods. In the opinion of the reviewer no conclusion is warranted from the data as to the superiority of any one method.

(2) The memory-span for digits does not increase regularly with chronological age, and is not necessarily highly correlated with intellectual acuteness. (3) An analysis is reported of the types of errors found in the memorization of digits and prose. (4) Girls, on the whole, are superior to boys.

BODE, B. H.—*What is Transfer of Training?* School and Society, 1919, pp. 39-44.

THE problem of the transfer of training, as it is usually stated, is the problem as to the effect of practice upon other mental functions. Faculty psychology has been abandoned, and so the faculties are no longer available as carriers or media for transmitting and applying previous training to new situations.

Some theories concerning the transfer of training are reviewed:

Thorndike: Transfer takes place in terms of "identical elements." Improvement in addition will alter one's ability in multiplication because addition is absolutely identical with a part of multiplication. The transfer of training consists in the recurrence of some previous fact in a new context or setting.

Colvin: Explains transfer of training in terms of "generalized habit."

Judd: Holds that "the extent to which a student generalizes his training is itself a measure of the degree to which he has secured from any course the highest form of training."

Bagley: The transfer of training is made possible by raising a habit to the level of explicit consciousness or transforming it into an ideal.

None of the foregoing theories are adequate, for there is no reason given why transfer takes place at one time and not at another.

The key to the problem of transfer is the *concept*, in its relation to the organized mass of responses with which it is correlated. The fact that an organism has been trained in certain habits is no reason for believing that it is more competent to deal with new situations. But if the habits have become part of a *system* of responses it is a different state of affairs.

Thus the concept represents a wide range of possible behaviour, in condensed and concentrated form. Fundamentally the question at issue is not the question of transfer but of the *development of concepts*, and back of this is the question as to the context or setting in which concepts are to be placed so as to give them an appropriate context.

LENTZ, E.—*Zum psychologischen Problem "Fremdsprachen und Muttersprache."* Ztsch. f. Päd. Psych., 1991, p. 409. (A review of Epstein, I., *La pensée et la polyglossie*. Paris, Payot, 1916.

AGREES completely with Epstein, especially with reference to interference, and the harmful influence of foreign language upon the vernacular language and on precision and clearness of thought. He gives counts of mistakes, misuses and confusions of words made by students in a classical gymnasium, and attributed by Lentz to excessive foreign language study. The article contains a bibliography of publications by Lentz.

STERN, W.—*Die Erlernung und Beherrschung fremder Sprachen.* Ztsch. f. Päd. Psych., 1919, pp. 104-108.

REVIEWS Epstein's book (*vide supra*). Criticizes Epstein's psychological approach as "associationist"; considers that in spite of the evil of interference, foreign language study is a great stimulus to thinking. He contends that



Epstein's pedagogical position would result in too much attention being given to reading and recitation by the teacher, and would lead to passivity on the part of the student. Agrees that foreign language study is likely to interfere seriously with the vernacular, especially in children.

DASHIELL, J. F.—*A Comparison of Complete vs. Alternate Methods of Learning Two Habits*. Psych. Rev., 1920, pp. 112-135.

THE specific problem was to determine whether it is more economical to learn two different habits by practising one until it is completely learned before attempting to learn the other. Several experiments are reported,—maze running by rats, by children and by adults, and card sorting and adding by adults. The number of subjects is not large for any one experiment. The value of the results is due to the uniformity of conclusions reached in quite independent studies. In regularity of improvement, and, in most of the studies, in the rate of improvement, the alternating method was inferior. It is therefore more efficient to learn one habit thoroughly before undertaking the learning of another.

AUSTIN, S. D.—*A Study in Logical Memory*. Amer. Jour. of Psych., 1921, pp. 370-403.

A STUDY undertaken to determine whether divided repetitions would prove more effective than accumulated repetitions in learning material with meaning. Three men, twelve women, who were doing advanced work in the psychological laboratory, acted as subjects. Two kinds of logical material were used for each subject, e.g., organic chemistry and principles of mathematics. In each case the subject chose or was assigned material with which he

was relatively unfamiliar but in which he was interested. Passages varied from two to five pages. The subject-matter for tests was consecutive material, *e.g.*, the first assignment would be two pages, and the second, the following two pages.

Total number of repetitions used throughout the experiment was five. Subject read the assignment at the same time of day, carefully, and using his own method of reading, either aloud or to himself. The method employed by any one learner was to be uniform for the experiment. Assignments were to be dismissed completely after reading, though subjects were aware that it should be remembered. The repetitions were scattered over varying intervals of time and from five repetitions in one day to one repetition every fifth day. The extreme time limits for testing were from two hours to three, four and six weeks.

Distributed repetitions were more valuable than those which were accumulated when the subject-matter was to be tested in two weeks or one month.

For immediate recall (recall after two or twenty-four hours) accumulated repetitions were as valuable as distributed.

Repetitions too far apart were as ineffective as those which came too closely together.

Questions always brought back more than free recall. There was a decrease with time in the amount retained. For all subjects there was a dependence for recall upon visualization of the text. The forgetting of sense or logical material is rapid at first, then proceeds more slowly, as Ebbinghaus found for nonsense syllables.

The writer says that, unfortunately, the subjects were aware of the time when they were to be tested when reading an assignment.

O'BRIEN, F. J.—*A Qualitative Investigation of the Effect of the Mode of Presentation upon the Process of Learning.*

A. J. P., 1921, pp. 249-283.

SEVEN university students learned four-letter words and nonsense syllables, studying them silently, listening to them being read, saying them aloud, writing them, and so on. Twelve different methods of presentation were employed. Introspective reports were taken during learning, during immediate recall and after twenty-four hours to provide information as to the type of imagery employed. Saying a seen word or syllable aloud was of more value than writing it, but when the material was presented auditorily, writing it out was found to be of assistance.

ROBINSON, E. S.—*The Relative Efficiencies of Distributed and Concentrated Study in Memorizing.* Jour. Exp.

Psychol., 1921, pp. 327-343.

AN experiment to test the relative efficiency of distributed *vs.* concentrated study in memorizing series consisting of ten 3-digit numbers, chosen by chance with certain precautions against repetition, sequences, etc. presented visually. Twelve presentations were given in several ways; a series of twelve, two series of six with twenty-four hour interval, four series of three with twenty-four hour interval. Recall tested immediately and after twenty-four hours. Examination of the results indicates that splitting the twelve presentations into two groups of six, separated by twenty-four hours, is more effective than making them together. Splitting six presentations into groups of three separated by twenty-four hours leaves the advantage slightly with the concentration, except in the case of the twenty-four hour recall where the advantage was even more in favour of distribution. It is therefore suggested

that the relative merits of distribution and concentration depend upon, (1) the total amount of study considered, (2) the units into which the material is divided, (3) the stage in the forgetting process at which memorial efficiency is tested, and (4) the criterion of recall.

ROSENBERG, F.—*Die neueren Sprachen in den Foerdklassen des Koellinischen Gymnasiums*. Praktische Psychologie, 1921-22, pp. 178-180.

AUTHOR was appointed in 1918 to teach introductory French to a group of selected pupils who, due to their high general intelligence, were supposed to make in five years a curriculum which under normal conditions was planned for seven years.

No statistical data are given, but the author reports the following as characteristics of bright pupils in learning a foreign language: they learn more rapidly and remember better; the teacher had to be very careful to give "provisionary" rules and definitions because students immediately became aware of contradictions; there was a marked transfer of classical language training (Latin) to foreign language learning (French); the pupils showed an interest in psychological factors and the facts of language development; they were interested in both theoretical and practical grammar; the different elements of the curriculum facilitated each other. There was little evidence of interference.

*The Problem of the "Hopeless Case"* (by "C"). Mod. Lang., 1921, pp. 42-47.

A DESCRIPTION in somewhat general terms of types of children who are "hopeless cases" for the modern foreign language teacher. Types enumerated are: (a) the child who has no "language faculty" while still possessing



average intelligence, (b) the pupil who has been taught by several divergent methods, (c) the pupil who is interested only in science, (d) the pupil who is actively antagonistic to languages because of some unpleasant experiences with a teacher of languages. No methods are proposed for diagnosis of these cases. The only therapeutic suggestions are that remedial treatment must be early, must precede the period in which a child is interested in foreign language composition, and might be almost exclusively oral. No specific suggestions for re-education are given, and no experimental data quoted.

VALENTINE, C. W.—*Mental Training Through Language Studies*. Mod. Lang., 1921, pp. 105-108.

IN case of poor or even average linguists there is no proof that any valuable mental functions receive, to any considerable extent, a general training through the study of foreign languages.

It is possible that for some students, but only those of special linguistic capabilities, foreign languages may give a training of certain mental functions, which is not given to the same extent by any other subject.

Thus the "mental gymnastic" argument, like that of "general culture", and "aesthetic training" suggests that the genuine values of all study of foreign language are only obtained by those who have special capacities for such studies, and who carry them to an advanced stage. For such the real insight gained into the thought and culture of a foreign people is ample motive, without reliance upon highly speculative arguments about mental training.

WEBB, L. W.—*A Comparison of Two Methods of Studying, with Application to Foreign Language*. Sch. Rev., 1921, pp. 58-67.

THE purpose of this study is to determine the relative value of two methods of studying paired associates, such as a list of words with definitions, or a foreign vocabulary with the English equivalents. In using the first method (recall method) the students divided their time into two parts: first they studied the series for a certain length of time, and second, they spent the balance of the time in recalling as many of the associates as possible. While working with the second method the whole time was spent in studying without trying to recall. Fifteen proper names with a descriptive adjective after each name comprised the material. The recall group did nearly 28 per cent. better than the study group.

Experiments using different kinds of material, including the mastery of foreign vocabulary, are reported. From 65 to 76 per cent. of the subjects did better under the conditions of recall. With from 8 to 10 per cent. it made no difference which method was used, while from 16 to 24 per cent. made a poorer record when using the recall method. In the matter of writing, individual variations again manifest themselves. 57 per cent. of the students did better by writing, while 35 per cent. made a lower score. Evidently not all students should be made to write when memorizing material.

PIAGET, JEAN.—*Le Langage et la Pensée chez l'Enfant*. Paris, Delachaux & Niestle, 1923. xiv + 318 pp. \$1.90. In English: London, Kegan Paul, 1927. 10s. 6d.

THIS book is a study of the thought of children as exhibited in their language.

The study was made at the Maison des Petits de l'Institut J. J. Rousseau. Children are allowed to work and play with a minimum of instruction. They pass

freely from room to room, modelling, drawing and playing, reading and doing arithmetic games. They may talk freely to each other or to the supervisors, and, in short, have complete liberty of action. Two investigations are reported: in the first one, every word spoken by certain selected children was noted down with its context and then subjected to careful analysis; the second study, of the verbal comprehension of children, involved telling certain tales to the children, then questioning them and noting how many points they seemed to have grasped.

The entire conversation (with context) of Pie and Levi, two children of six and a half years, was noted during one month and classified under eight categories. The proportion of phrases spoken by each child was then computed. The classifications are as follows:

	EGOCENTRIC LANGUAGE		% Instances	
			Pie	Levi
(1) Repetition (child repeats for pleasure of talking).			2	1
(2) Monologue (child speaks without addressing anyone).			5	15
(3) "Monologue à deux", or more, (child speaks to associates without really wishing to be understood).			30	23
SOCIALIZED LANGUAGE				
(4) Adaptive information (responses in which child really puts himself in questioner's place).			14	13
(5) Criticism, (remarks more affective than intellectual).			7	3
(6) Orders, prayers, menaces.			15	10
(7) Questions.			13	17
(8) Responses given to questions understood by children, also those given to orders and requests.			14	18
Egocentric language.			37	39
Socialized language, spontaneous.			49	43
Socialized language, total.			63	61
Coefficient of egocentricity .....			0.43	0.47

The author expresses the view that children are more egocentric than adults, and communicate to each other

less of their experience. They speak as they work, but communicate far less than adults in similar circumstances.

Chapter II deals with conversations of children. From four hundred remarks of children between three and a half and seven years of age, sixty-three conversations were discovered. These conversations are divided into two "stages". Stage A consists of monologues, stage B of collective monologues and conversation proper. There are various types of each.

1st type Stage IIA child talks of what he does, the listener hears but responds by talking of his own doings,—association, but not collaboration.	10
1st type Stage IIIB collaboration in action or thought that is not abstract.	11
2nd type Stage IIA collaboration in thought or action that is not abstract.	25
2nd type Stage IIB primitive discussion,—affirmations not motivated.	15
Stage IIIA collaboration in abstract thought.	1
Stage IIB true discussion, motivated affirmations.	1

From the data the author concludes that collaboration in abstract thought appears later than seven years. The true social language of children is play, a language of gesture, movements, and mimicry. There is an absence of intellectual exchange concerning causality, an absence of demonstrations or logical justifications. Children keep their preoccupations to themselves.

In Chapter V the author discusses the questions of children. The material used is a collection of the questions spontaneously asked during six months by Del, a boy of between six and seven years. One thousand one hundred and twenty-five questions were asked. These were divided into the following types:

(I) Questions of causal explanation, causes of phenomena:

(a) cause



- (b) results
- (2) Motivations, motive
- (3) Justification
  - (a) justification properly speaking
  - (b) logical right

The questions show that the thought of the child is equally far from feeling after strict causal explanation as from logical justifications. This seems clearly related to the egocentricity coefficient which has been shown above.

The author challenges the definition "language serves an individual to communicate thought". He states that even in the case of an adult this is not always true. Adults indulge in monologues when alone. He concludes that people enjoy an excitement when speaking which is quite apart from the satisfying of the need to communicate thought. He refuses to consider that there is one single function fulfilled by speech. In the language of primitive peoples it seems that language is linked to action, *i.e.*, the cry of battle and the cry of love at mating. The author finds that children also link words to action in their monologues while working.

KOLLARITS, JENO.—*Sprach-psychologische Notizen*. Arch. f. d. Ges. Psych., 1923, pp. 168-171.

A DETAILED case study of an adult Hungarian woman, with little education in her vernacular, who had to learn German. The writer notes ways in which her language learning resembled that of the learning of the vernacular by a child, and ways in which the two processes differed. The similarities are to be found in: (a) Learning was entirely auditory; (b) Many improvisations appeared, sometimes circumstantial in nature, *e.g.*, a "bum-bumme frau" for a noisy woman, sometimes grammatical, as if a learner were to say in English "gefinished", sometimes

by transplantation of forms from the vernacular into the foreign, as if we were to consider "a glass water" to be a verbal translation of "ein Glas Wasser"; (c) Ambiguous phraseology appeared, *e.g.*, "the little box with the little lights" for a "box of matches"; (d) Absence of proper word order in interlocutory sentences, *e.g.*, "Mother is here", said with decreasing tone, but intended to be interrogative; (e) Understands more words than she is able to use; (f) Uncertainty in understanding and use of words that have no concrete meaning, *e.g.*, "however", "somewhere"; (g) Successful and unsuccessful guessing of the meaning of the word from its context; (h) Appearance of gesture language under pressure of necessity.

On the other hand, the learning by the adult differed from that of children in that the child frequently acquires new experiences and ideas with the new word; for the adult it is a question of new names for familiar experiences. Consequently the adult usually asks for a translation only, the child for an explanation. The adult does not show, as does the child, a gradual transition in speech periods, progressing from simple phrases to the use of subordinate sentences. Further, letter combinations in the foreign language, especially consonants, that are absent in the vernacular are learned with much difficulty. The author thinks they are not heard—thus, "zeifel" is said instead of "zweifel". When corrected the person replied "Did I not say 'zeifel'?"

Other points in the article deserve mention. Short, frequently used adverbs, conjunctions and exclamations are often transferred by a polyglot person from the vernacular into the foreign language without any word change. Words that are very similar in form in both languages, *e.g.*, international words such as "telephone," preserve for a long time the vernacular pronunciation and

accent. Even after a period of training the foreign language seems less familiar, because the foreign word and its translation do not exactly correspond, *e.g.*, an English-speaking person might say "ist der Platz beschäftigt" which to the German would mean "is this seat in action". "Busy" and "beschäftigt" are similar, but not identical concepts. Some persons consider the foreign language more refined, *e.g.*, Germans use "cochonnerie" but not its German equivalent.

WILLIAMS, C. S.—*¿Es posible pensar en una lengua extranjera?* Hisp., 1923, pp. 102-105.

THE writer is of the opinion that it is not possible to think in the foreign language. He contends that it is impossible for a person who has learned, or is learning to speak French or Spanish, to get to the point of expressing himself naturally in the language, for he cannot say much without thinking, and he cannot think without returning to his native speech. What occurs when speaking a language not one's own is a translation, more or less rapid. If this is true in the case of those who are masters of the language, it is a pedagogical error to expect that our pupils are going to acquire the habit of thinking in the foreign tongue.

BOND, O. F.—*Causes of Failure in Elementary French and Spanish Courses at the College Level.* School Review, 1924, pp. 276-287.

THE writer investigated the causes of the failures during 1921-22 in the first-year French and Spanish courses offered in the junior college of the University of Chicago. The sources of the data obtained were the personal record blanks filled out by students at the beginning of each quarter, and the quarterly report on exceptional and delinquent students made by the instructors.

The six causes classified under "preparation" occur constantly in the case reports. These include inadequate preparation (general, for the course, in English), no previous foreign language experience, deficient language sense, etc. The causes of failure listed under "attendance" are particularly important in language-arts courses. Defective hearing and defective speech habits, which might not assume importance in content courses, become distinct barriers to language mastery. Incorrect attitude toward language study includes studying the language under administrative or parental compulsion, a personal distaste for language in particular or in general, a desire for only one phase of the language work, and false and misleading conceptions of the nature and utility of language courses.

COLE, L. E.—*Latin as a Preparation for French and Spanish*. Sch. and Soc., 1924, pp. 618-622.

OF nine hundred and seventy first-year students entering Oberlin College, one hundred and five elected to begin the study of Spanish and two hundred and twenty-three to begin the study of French. All had had some Latin in high school, the amount varying from two to four years of work. By the use of refined statistical procedure, including partial correlations, Cole attempted to discover whether any of the relative success of different students in Romance languages could be considered directly attributable to previous Latin training. On the basis of correlations and performances of paired groups of students the writer concludes: (1) No relation exists between the number of years of Latin and intelligence test score. (2) Although those who had taken Latin longest were not a more intelligent group, they did make higher grades in Romance languages and in first year work in general.



They were superior in what may be called "capacity for work". (3) There is an apparent transfer from Latin to French in the case of those who have studied Latin longest (4 years). The study terminated with the first year, but no dropping off in the superiority of the four-year Latin group was evidenced at the end of the second semester.

GRAVES, H.—*Thinking in a Language*. Mod. Lang., 1924, pp. 181-182.

As a rule we think not in words at all but in "mental pictures". It is only when we are faced by the necessity of communicating an idea to some other person that it is translated from "mental pictures" into language, whether English or any other.

The difference between the man who thinks in French and the man who does not, is that the former translates his ideas from "mental pictures" into that language without the necessity for their passing through the medium of English words, while the latter has to translate his ideas from "mental pictures" into English, and then re-translate them into the foreign language. It is probably true to say that the majority of thoughts are not mentally framed in words till the necessity for communicating them arises or is in contemplation.

HUE, J. L.—*The Relation of the Amount of Latin Pursued in High School to Success in First Semester French in the University of Iowa*. M.A. dissertation, Univ. of Iowa, 1924.

THE correlation between amount of high school Latin and first semester French in university is positive and significant.

PECHSTEIN, L. A. and MCGREGOR, A. L.—*Psychology of the Junior High School Pupil*. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin, (1924). xix + 280 pp.

THE junior high school since its first establishment in California in 1909 has been accepted so generally in the United States and in parts of Canada that it is a factor in education that needs to be studied carefully. The authors of this book, who set as their purpose to discuss the best educational practice side by side with the science underlying it, do not refer specifically to the subject of languages, but discuss general psychological facts that can be applied to the problem of the place of languages in the new type of high school.

THORNDIKE, E. L.—*Educational Psychology, briefer course*. New York, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1924. xii + 442 pp.

A STANDARD and indispensable work, which for this reason makes an analysis of contents inexcusable. Attention may be called especially, however, to the second part, the psychology of learning: association, analysis, selection, mental functions, the amount, rate, conditions, factors, permanence and limit of improvement, mental fatigue.

TIDYMAN, W. F.—*The Teaching of Spelling*. Yonkers, World Book Co., 1924, 179 pp.

A DISCUSSION of the psychological basis of spelling, methods of teaching words, prevention and treatment of errors, and the measurement of spelling efficiency. The book is an outgrowth of extensive educational experiments and class-room experience. The psychological problem involved in learning is the arousal of visual, auditory, or motor images of the word; which imagery consists in an order of letters, and must not be confused with imagery

of heard, spoken or written words, where the word is the imagery-unit. The first step in spelling is to get a clear image in visual, auditory or speech-motor form. Simultaneous use of several forms of imagery is recommended. The author recommends the following order of presentation: (1) The heard, spoken and seen forms of the word should be associated with its meaning; (2) The word should be visualized by syllables; (3) The visual images of the syllables should next be associated with the sounds of the syllables; (4) The visual image of the order of letters should be associated with the visual and speech-motor-auditory images of the order of words; (5) The speech-motor and hand-motor images of the order of letters should be associated with the visual images of letters (p. 40). Vivid picturing and attentive repetition are the essential principles of learning to spell. The author reviews the chief studies to date of publication on questions of method, and indicates their pedagogical value. Accurate pronunciation is essential; syllabification is an important aid; definitions are of little assistance; visual presentation is superior to any other; there is a marked failure to "transfer" learning; dictation of the spelling has little value; rules are of limited value (in English, at any rate). By far the largest part of poor spelling is due, not to innate disability, but to remediable causes. Girls are better spellers than boys. Immigrant children spell more poorly than do native born children of similar grade in school. The Oakland Survey showed that "the influence of the home language seems not to be evident, since the errors made by children of foreign homes are in the main identical with those made by children whose home language is English, and are made in approximately similar proportions." Spelling efficiency is correlated about .50 with general efficiency in school work. A

bibliography of one hundred and eighty-seven titles is appended.

BUSEMANN, A.—*Speech of Juvenile Subjects as Expression of Development Rhythm*. Jena, 1925. Fischer. (This monograph has not been examined by the present reviewer. The following notes have been taken from *Ztschr. f. Paed. Psy.*, Vol. xxvi, p. 110).

JUVENILE compositions, children's diaries, stenographic records of children's reports on such a subject as a Christmas celebration were investigated and the expressions classified as (1) narrative,—actional (dynamic) and, (2) descriptive,—qualitative. By designating the first group as *a* and the second as *b* the author calculates the action quotient  $Aq. = \frac{a}{b}$

He finds that during the time of individual development different stages are characterized by different *Aq.*'s. Periods of great restlessness, affectiveness, lack of inhibition, are characterized by a high *Aq.*; periods of tranquility, self criticism, and high intellectual production by a low *Aq.* There are differences due to cosmic and meteorological factors; but there are also differences of the *Aq.* due to individual visceral causes. Busemann found in one individual a five day rhythm; in women subjects a menstrual rhythm is apparent especially in the period of adolescence. Boys show a maximal *Aq.* at the ages of 5, 9, 12-13, 17-18; girls at 9-10, 11-15 (not very marked) but expressively at 16-17. Stern's observation of the "substance" and "action" stages in childhood is, according to Busemann, a single undulation in the curve of periodical changes of the *Aq.* Busemann considers the high *Aq.* as a correlate of general temporary debility of the individual. (In other words, the predominance of active word symbols coincides with mental sterility of the



subject.) Sterzinger doubts the validity of this type of investigation, while recognizing, however, the importance of Busemann's work.

Stern reviews the article more extensively than Sterzinger. Like him, Stern does not find in Busemann's data any valid argument for using the *Aq.* as proof of the special emotional or mental status of the adult, nor does he consider the *Aq.* differences sufficiently high. What Stern recognizes (and this may be important in the foreign language problem) is that Busemann has found a method for defining style differences that in extreme cases at least may be highly significant, and may differentiate, with accumulated data, the objective and subjective types of persons.

We may formulate the validity of the article according to Stern in the following way:

1. The *Aq.* is a valid method for describing style qualities.

2. Busemann has proved that the spoken language (German at least) is more qualitative than the written language; Busemann attributes it to the time factor (we speak faster and easier and so more words are used).

3. Persons of high *Aq.*'s are characterized by a large use of monosyllabic words in speech and writing, while periods of low *Aq.*, *i.e.*, the qualitative style, according to Busemann a positive trait, are characterized by a consistently higher percentage of polysyllabic words.

Stern does not recognize a periodic rhythmic going and coming of style qualities, and considers that his own postulate, according to which the mental development of the individual from childhood to youth is characterized by three successive phases: substance phase, action phase, and qualitative-descriptive phase, remains still effective.

During 1926 Busemann published two new articles in

which he defended, with a large number of word counts, the validity of his "rhythmic hypothesis", but they have no special interest for the foreign language problem. The general thesis is a novel one and has received little, if any, attention outside of Germany.

ESPER, E. A.—*A Technique for the Experimental Investigation of Associative Interference in Artificial Linguistic Material*. Lang. Monog., 1925, 47 pp.

THREE main types of linguistic change may be identified: change in meaning of words, phonetic change, and analogic change. By the last is meant the modification in form of a word or group of words so that they approximate more to words with which they have been strongly associated. Thus if two words are associated, the articulation of one may be interfered with by the other, and a mixture of the two words may result. Thumb and Marbe (reviewed p. 301) found that these analogic changes occurred most frequently between words of the same grammatical categories, *e.g.*, numerals, adjectives. Knowledge of general principles governing such changes in diverse languages may lead to information as to how language habits become organized. Esper worked with artificial language material, a set of coloured figures, irregular, but of equal area, with which the subject was to associate nonsense syllables,—sixteen combinations being available. In one experiment the nonsense words were arranged so that each shape and each colour had a fixed symbol; the order of linguistic sequence was adjective-noun, as in English, and in each linguistic element there was a natural syllable. In a second series the order of linguistic elements was inverted, becoming noun-adjective, and the division of syllables an unnatural one, as *nu-lgen*. In the third series each colour-shape had a unique word

unrelated phonetically to the other words used. Only fourteen combinations were actually presented for learning. In the testing, which followed every fourth exposure, the two additional colour-shape combinations were presented, and assurance given that they actually had been presented before. The problem in this connection was the type or category that would be ascribed to the object for which no verbal associate had been given. Material was presented for thirty-two trials the first day, with a reduction to one trial on the 32nd day. Time and accuracy records were kept. Significant differences appear in the three methods. Sound sequences corresponding to shape were learned more rapidly than those corresponding to colour. Certain shapes were more frequently confused than others. Learning was very slow but relatively permanent. New linguistic categories appeared in at least one of the experiments. For the omitted figures no new categories were used. The names of figures of a given category tend to be confused with and assimilated to the name of a particular figure of that category. The author recommends the use of the third method in subsequent investigations.—The article refers to a limited bibliography.

TOMB, J. W.—*On the Intuitive Capacity of Children to Understand Spoken Language*. *British Journal of Psychology*, 1925, pp. 53-55.

AN attempt to explain the facility with which European children in such a country as India pick up the many languages they hear spoken. The author says that it is a common experience in Bengal to hear English children of three or four years converse freely with their parents in English, their nurses in Bengali, coolies in Santali and house-servants in Hindustani. He reports that children

“intuitively” and subconsciously give correct meanings to various sounds and seem unaware of any difference between the various languages—English, Bengali, Santali, Hindustani, and Tamil—that they are speaking. English children of three or four, brought to India for the first time, acquire after one year the capacity to understand and to speak freely in all the vernaculars of the district,—while their parents require the services of a teacher and expend great effort to acquire one of the languages.

Therefore the child’s capacity for learning languages is of a subconscious nature and does not depend on “intelligence”. Children must therefore possess a capacity of intuitively placing the correct meanings on spoken sounds, a capacity which they lose altogether as they approach adult life.

HOUSE, C. C.—*An experiment Involving the Laboratory Method*. M. L. J., 1926, pp. 349-355.

USED Roehm’s Laboratory Method with 9th grade pupils. The method involves the presentation of pictures, and the direct association of them with foreign substantives; action-words are associated with the manipulations of the cards. In sixty-five hours of instruction the writer was able to secure results, both in immediate learning and in permanent acquisition, superior to those usually obtained by one hundred and thirty-five hours of instruction. The active vocabulary obtained during this period ranged from three hundred to six hundred words. The author claims that the method is psychologically superior in that it secures that all words learned have some accompanying object or action-image.

STARCH, D.—*Educational Psychology*. New York. Macmillan, 1926. viii + 473 pp. \$2.50.



OF general interest on the psychology of learning. Under language only English is considered, but some of the suggestions can be applied to foreign language teaching.

—Other useful works of general interest are, A. I. Gates, *Psychology for Students of Education*, New York, Macmillan, 1927, \$2.50; H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, University of Chicago Press, 1927 (a chapter is devoted to technique in foreign language teaching).

WARSHAW, J.—*The Revaluation of Modern Language Study*. Sch. and Soc., 1926, pp. 473-484.

LANGUAGE teachers need not be alarmed because they cannot show vocational values for their subject. If this strict rule were applied to our curriculum, much of mathematics, science, English literature, music and so on would be forced out of the course of study. International-mindedness is one of the unique values of modern language training. Warshaw also discusses other values of foreign language study (for example, its use by graduates of universities), and proper objectives. See Kirkpatrick's reply, analysed below.

KIRKPATRICK, E. A.—*Further Revaluation of Language Studies Needed*. Sch. and Soc., 1926, pp. 814-15.

REPLY to an article by Warshaw, (see above). Warshaw gives no evidence to prove that the 40% of the persons who had occasion to use foreign languages were able to do so because of the training in those languages they had received in school. Repetitions count toward learning in proportion as the elements are the same, combined in the same way and under the same conditions. This being the case, learning to read a language by reading it is the economical way of acquiring that ability. Practice of one

language in order to learn another gives meagre results. The net amount of real "carry over" of habit proper from one process to the other is close to zero.

Facility in any language-art depends chiefly on practice and is proportional to the amount of practice. Knowledge of rules does not of itself increase facility in doing.

When courses in languages are intelligently re-organized there will be no course in French, Spanish, German, Latin, and not many in English in general, but courses in visual French, in oral French, literary French, etc., while courses in grammar or the science of language will not attempt to teach the art of using any language but will only study the structure of sample sentences in various languages. Root meanings, prefixes and suffixes will be studied as a means of increasing the range and accuracy of reading vocabularies. Six months of the latter kind of study will improve the vocabularies more than four years of the usual study of any one language.

CAMPBROOK, M. H.—*The Normal Boy and Language Learning*. Mod. Lang., 1927, pp. 83-85.

It is asserted that girls are superior to boys during early adolescence in modern foreign language attainment. This the author attributes to differences in motivation, due to the subject matter of courses being largely literary, aesthetic, non-athletic, and too precise for the boy. No experimental data in support of the primary assertion are given.

KENYERES, E.—*Les premiers mots de l'enfant, et l'apparition des espèces des mots dans son langage*. Arch. de Psychol., 1927, pp. 191-218.

A STUDY of the linguistic development of a little Hun-

garian girl, and a comparison of the author's findings with those of other investigators. The author does not think there is any stage at which substantives appear. The child's first words designated actions, things and qualities. Some words are primarily objective in character, other words are affective and volitional. The major point in the study is a denial of clear-cut stages when "types" of words appear. The order of appearance of vocabulary is a function of many variables among which are the development of the child, the environment, and the nature of the language being learned. A child often uses grammatical forms before he realizes their significance. Caution must be observed in taking either quantity or quality of vocabulary as an index of intellectual growth.

LEMPER, L. H.—*The Effect of Having Studied a Foreign Language in High School on the Ability of College Freshmen to Use English Correctly*. Sch. Rev., 1927, pp. 676-680.

THE superiority of those who had studied a foreign language two or more years over those who had not studied any foreign language was found to be greater than the improvement made during a year of college rhetoric. The fact that the test came at the beginning of the college year, after a summer's vacation, and, in most cases after a year of school with no courses in English, indicates that the superiority is permanent, and not a temporary condition produced by coaching. Statistical tables are given.

McKEE, P.—*Teaching Spelling by Column and Context Forms*. J. Educ. Res., 1927, pp. 246-255.

WHILE the study was made with English words, it is

probably applicable to words in any language. The author compared the learning of isolated words in columns with that of words placed in phrase, sentence, and paragraph contexts, and found that results were approximately the same with either method for 275 seventh grade pupils, when words were used in new contexts. Pupils who studied and were tested by the column method seemed to acquire a greater amount of spelling ability than did those who studied and were tested by the phrase form.

REED, H. B.—*The Essential Laws of Learning or Association*. Psychological Review, 1927, pp. 107-115.

HE assumes that the laws of learning and the laws of association are the same.

The problems that the laws of learning are intended to solve are: (1) the formation of connections, (2) the strength of the connections, (3) the elimination of false reactions.

Related to the first problem are the laws of contiguity and similarity which he re-states:

*Law of contiguity*: If a reaction or series of reactions is repeatedly made to two or more stimuli, later one of these stimuli will provoke this reaction or series of reactions.

*Law of similarity*: If an organism meets in a new situation elements similar to those to which it has made reactions before, it has a tendency to repeat these reactions.

Need for a new law: That man learns by perceiving relationships.

Problem (2) is explained by the law of exercise and its sub-laws of frequency, recency and intensity.

Problem (3) is explained by the law of effect.

*Set* expresses a general neural trend that conditions the operations of all the laws.



REED, H. B.—*Psychology of Elementary School Subjects*.  
Boston, Ginn & Co., 1927. x + 481 pp.

A CRITICAL review and interpretation of experimental literature on the psychology and pedagogy of the seven major subjects of the curriculum in the elementary school. Attention is given to educational and mental tests and testing, but there are careful enquiries into other problems, less obviously experimental, such as aims and objectives. Bibliographies follow each chapter.

SMITH, D. R., MEAD, A. R. and PETERS, C. C.—*The Transfer of "Translation Thinking"*. Sch. & Soc., 1927, pp. 380-384.

FIFTY-three students who were to take Latin were paired approximately with an equal number of non-Latin students. Reasoning tests in arithmetic, history and sociology were used at the beginning and close of the experiment, which lasted over four months. Non-Latin students gained more in reasoning, on the average, than did the Latin, but a larger percentage of Latin students made some gain. Improvement in Latin was accompanied both by improvement, and by non-improvement in reasoning. Transfer effects of Latin are not universal; may occur in many directions; and should be directly sought after, if they are desired. The short time during which training in Latin was given makes the experiment of limited significance.

WOODROW, H.—*The Effect of Type of Training Upon Transference*. J. Educ. Psy., 1927, pp. 159-172.

MOST transfer studies are made with but two groups, a practice group which is given certain training, and a control group, equivalent in all respects, except this special training. The author added a third group which he calls the trained group. The original and end tests

included memorizing of prose and poetry and a Turkish-English vocabulary. The practice group studied poetry and nonsense syllables for one hundred and seventy-seven minutes; the trained group studied this material for one hundred and one minutes and were given seventy-six minutes of instruction in the most effective methods of memorizing. All three groups were then re-tested, and the order of ranking was: trained, practice and control groups. Both in terms of total gain in efficiency and in terms of probable error of the gain, the trained group was superior; a result which implies that the method of study may be transferred, and may be the most important factor in determining whether positive transfer will appear or not.

## VI. TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

TERMAN, L. M.—*The Measurement of Intelligence*. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin, 1916. xviii + 362 pp. \$1.50. CONTAINS the Stanford-Binet intelligence tests, the most widely used individual verbal intelligence scale, with full directions for giving, scoring, conducting the examination, etc. Part I discusses the values of intelligence tests, the sources of error in estimates by teachers, the nature of intelligence, the interpretation of intelligence quotients, and data on their reliability. This scale is a routine part of the psychological examination in almost all clinics to-day.

BURCHINAL, M.—*What should an examination disclose as to the ability of a student at the end of his high school course?* Mod. Lang. Jour., 1917, pp. 163-171.

THE examination should be: more modern, more flexible, less difficult.

*Committee on Resolutions and Investigations appointed by the Association of Modern Language Teachers; Report of Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland.*

Mod. Lang. Jour., 1917, pp. 250-261.

THIS committee suggests a revised plan for an aural and oral test for admission to college in French, German and Spanish, the elementary test to consist of three parts:

(1) A ten minute exercise in writing easy French, German or Spanish prose from dictation.

(2) Written reproduction in English of the content of a short passage in easy French, German or Spanish prose to be read by the examiner.

(3) Written answers in the respective foreign language to easy questions read by the examiner in the foreign language.

The intermediate test is likewise to consist of three parts, the only difference being in the difficulty of the passages.

No actual oral test is included in this examination but it seems certain that no candidate could pass it who had not received abundant oral as well as aural training.

This plan was submitted for criticism to about one thousand public and private secondary schools in the Middle States and Maryland. The opinions expressed were in most instances favourable to the proposed examination and to the method indicated by the committee's recommendation and the specimen papers. The objections to the scheme are also listed.

MÉRAS, A. A.—*French Examination.* Mod. Lang. Jour., 1917, pp. 285-294.

THE author suggests the proper content for French examinations, and submits a sample paper that meets his criteria in form and content.

MONROE, DE VOSS and KELLY.—*Educational Tests and Measurements*. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1917. (Foreign languages, pp. 234-236.)

ONE of the earliest texts on the subject. Traces in a factual way the development of objective measures, and describes the major tests of use in the elementary and secondary schools. At the date of publication there were few tests available in the foreign language field. The tests devised by Starch and Henmon are described. Values of objective tests are discussed.

TITTERTON, J.—*The Oral Examination*. Mod. Lang. Teach., 1917, pp. 16-17.

THE writer outlines the content of a first year oral examination used regularly by himself and his assistants. It consists of: a phonetic "dictée", to which is added a short one in ordinary script, if bridging has been done; a comprehension test in which a tale is told in French twice, the class then writing in English as fully as possible what they have understood of it; the reproduction in phonetic script of the content of a story told before the examination; and a standard type of oral examination in which each pupil is asked exactly the same questions. They read a small piece of phonetic script to test pronunciation of certain sounds. They are asked to say isolated sounds, and even questioned about tongue and lip positions for certain sounds.

FEINGOLD, G. A.—*Measuring the Results of a Modern Language Examination*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1918, pp. 14-20.

THIS article is a study of the relative difficulty of the various questions constituting an elementary French examination paper with a view to discovering the proper weighting of questions. A question was considered appro-



priate when the class obtained on it approximately the same average that it achieved on the entire paper. The statistical and graphical devices used by the writer can be readily duplicated.

LIPSKY, A.—*A Few Neglected Platitudes on Modern Language Examinations*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1918, pp. 75-79.

QUESTIONS should not be put that require for their comprehension abilities of a different kind from those that are to be tested. The vocabulary, idioms, etc. are selected artificially by the teacher. One of the most frequent sources of limitation in school examinations is the method of scoring. Some teachers want questions in an examination paper that test "power". "Power" in the handling of a foreign language means chiefly fluency, *i.e.* speed. Anybody can formulate a sentence in any foreign language if given time enough.

In the acquisition of a foreign language several distinct abilities come into play. At the base are auditory and visual perception. Then comes the ability to remember words,—singly, in combination, in idioms; at the top is the power of abstract thinking, the ability to distinguish kinds of thoughts as such. Without these powers of abstraction and reasoning by analogy the pupil will never become an adept in languages. To test these powers should be the function of examinations in the most advanced courses. Here is where the terminology of grammar may be freely employed.

MERSEREAU, E. B.—*The Positive Element in the Correction of Written Work*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1918, pp. 80-83.

A POLICY of marking is reported that gives credit for correct work, rather than demerits for errors.

MONROE, W. S.—*Measuring the Results of Teaching*.  
 Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1918. xviii + 297 pp.  
 \$1.85.

IN the introductory chapter evidence is given to show that examination marks on the traditional type of examination are seriously inaccurate, and for two reasons,—a teacher's estimate of the relative difficulties of questions is unreliable, and the rate of doing work is largely ignored. The major portion of the text demonstrates how educational tests may be used to diagnose the strength and weakness of a school, class, or pupil, in the subjects of the elementary school,—reading, arithmetic, spelling, writing, language, geography and history. Once the specific difficulties have been defined, corrective instruction can be intelligently given. A large number of tests are mentioned and their values indicated.

NUTTING, H. C.—*Experimental Tests of Educational Values*. Educ., 1918, pp. 460-466.

A REPLY to an article by Kennedy in which the latter claimed that Latin did not function in life and should not be given any significant place on the curriculum. The present author is prepared to accept the results of a scientific analysis of the values of various subject matters, but points out that Kennedy's test for the value of Latin was quite inadequate.

WOODROW, HERBERT.—*Brightness and Dullness in Children*. Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott, 1919. 322 pp.

A DESCRIPTION and analysis of recent experimental work in the individual differences between children. The Binet-Simon scales, notwithstanding their limitations, are the best instruments yet devised for determining the educational possibilities of children. They are highly

reliable. All mental processes are dependent upon brain development, and the author reviews the major relevant facts of brain growth. Mental deficiency is often accompanied by physical defect, because both are determined primarily by the same germ cells. Another measure of growth now being used is the anatomical age, which is based on the relative development of bones, teeth, and certain physiological processes such as puberty. A considerable portion of the text is devoted to an analysis of the relationship of intelligence and such mental processes as perception, association, memory, attention and reasoning. This section is of more direct interest to the professional psychologist. The last chapter discusses the adaptation of educational methods to stages of intellectual and physical development. The book is very readable, and presents, in a vocabulary as free as possible from technicalities, the results of the great bodies of research on intelligence testing, and the educational implications of such results.

GREENE, H. A.—*Tests for the Measurement of Certain Phases of Linguistic Organization in Sentences*. J. Educ. Psy., 1920, pp. 511-525.

As a preparatory step to undertaking the construction of a test such as that described in the title, the author made a tentative analysis, admittedly incomplete, of language ability. The outline follows:

- I. Oral expression—voice
  - articulation
  - errors in speech—grammatical
  - vocabulary—choice of words
  - audience attitudes and skills
  - logical organization of material

## 2. Written expression—mechanical factors

- writing
- spelling
- punctuation
- form and appearance
- grammatical factors
- theoretical factors
  - choice of words
  - interest of material
  - logical organization of material.

HANDSCHIN, C. H.—*Tests and Measurements in Modern Language Work*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1920, pp. 217-225.

GIVES a résumé of principles the author considers to be established sufficiently for pedagogical purposes:

(1) Learning a language is a fourfold process,—hearing, speaking, seeing (reading) and writing.

(2) There must be conscious memorial activity; matter which is to be retained must be repeated, *i.e.*, presented repeatedly to consciousness; rhythmical form, or recurrence, favours retention; attention is an important factor in memorial activity, and attention depends on interest; the feelings (of pleasure or pain) also play a great part in memorial activity, and the feelings manifest themselves in the form of interest.

(3) The memory for objects and movements is greater than for verbal impressions.

(4) The ability to recall the vernacular word on presentation of the foreign word (translation from the foreign language) is much greater (two or three times as great) as the ability to recall the foreign word. Both foreign word-native word and native word-foreign word learning



are superior to teaching foreign words by means of pictures in point of easiest and surest retention, of fatigue, most ready reproduction, and of dependence upon form of learning.

(5) The object-foreign word method of learning is superior to the foreign word-native word method, and this is superior to the native word-foreign word method in point of immediate as well as permanent retention.

(6) Learning words in sentences is easier for immediate or deferred recall than learning isolated words. It depends upon the nature of the test (uses to which the knowledge is put) as to which mode of presentation is best employed.

(7) "The study of foreign languages materially increases the student's knowledge of English grammar, but only slightly increases his ability to use English correctly."

(8) "Training in foreign language seems to have produced a distinct effect in greater fluency of words in writing and in more rapid perception of words in reading".

(9) High probability is established by Miss Clarahan for the following principle: the reading method is superior to the grammar-translation method for assimilating reading texts as well as for assimilating grammatical knowledge.

The author enumerates criteria for test construction, and presents a reading test as illustrative of the operation of these principles.

VAN WAGENEN, M. J. and KELLEY, F. E.—*Language Abilities and their Relations to College Marks*. J. Educ. Psych., 1920, pp. 459-473.

FIND low correlation between some linguistic processes that might be assumed to be related. "Language" is a term including many divergent abilities.

BOOK, WM. F.—*The Intelligence of High School Seniors as Revealed by a State-Wide Mental Survey of Indiana High Schools*. New York, Macmillan, New York, 1922.

#### CHAPTER IX. Intelligence of Seniors Preferring Different High School Subjects.

Intelligence tests were given near the close of the senior year, after the students had practically finished their high school course, and thus an opportunity was provided of ascertaining each student's favourite study and to compare the intelligence scores of those selecting different high school subjects. To this end each senior was asked to name the subject in his entire course which he preferred, or enjoyed most. The seniors electing various foreign language and science subjects rank ahead of all other groups, and those electing vocational subjects rank lowest.

The groups selecting foreign language and science contain proportionally more students with very superior (A) and superior (B) grades of intelligence than any other group; the groups selecting commercial and vocational subjects contain the smallest percentage of students who make these intelligence ratings.

The relative number of seniors possessing the highest grade of intelligence is almost seven times larger in the group electing a language than in the group electing a vocational subject.

A detailed study of the distribution and frequency tables for the several favourite-study groups revealed the following additional facts:

1. The brightest boys selected mathematics and science as their favourite study.
2. The brightest girls selected Latin and other foreign languages. The brightest boys never selected a language as their favourite subject.

3. In the commercial and science subjects the boys are far superior to the girls. In the language groups the girls clearly outstrip the boys. Pages 176-178 discuss the influence of favourite study upon college intention.

4. The girls preferring foreign language, English and history are going to college in greatest numbers. Those electing domestic science, music and art, agriculture and science are least likely to go.

BROOKS, S. S.—*Improving Schools by Standardized Tests*. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1922.

A REPORT by a school superintendent of the methods which he used to induce his teachers to carry through an extensive programme of intelligence and educational testing, the results he obtained, and the changes in methods suggested by these results. The text is unique in the field of educational testing in that it provides a picture of what can be accomplished in a few years by an energetic and able superintendent who is supported by a body of interested teachers. The author holds that the first reading instruction should be in silent reading. "When we measure oral reading ability, we estimate the performance of the pupil solely on the basis of the way he pronounces the words. Since some pupils learn to read in spite of poor teaching methods, and since most pupils learn to pronounce a few hundred common words, a false idea of the efficiency of oral reading drill has long persisted, an idea fostered by wrong aims in teaching, and a lack of intelligent method in measuring results." Two chapters which are worthy of study by modern language teachers are devoted to a discussion of methods of teaching silent reading in English to beginners.

BRIGGS, T. H.—*Prognosis Tests of Ability to Learn Foreign Languages*. Jour. of Educ. Res., 1922, pp. 386-392.

THE writer made an analysis of the tasks involved in learning a foreign language and enumerated three types of activity: memorizing a vocabulary, memorizing paradigms, and translating. The next step was to devise tests that seemed likely to measure the abilities involved. He selected: a free association test in which the pupils were required to write in columns as many different words as they could in 3 minutes; a test of extent of vocabulary in which the pupils were required to mark after each of one hundred words, which had been selected at intervals from a standard dictionary, an "1" if they knew the meaning, the pupils being asked later to write a definition of each twenty designated words that they had marked "1"; a test of memory of nonsense syllables; the Briggs Analogies Test in which the pupils write a fourth word which bears the same relation to the third that the second does to the first; the Kelley-Trabue Completion Test; the Kelley Substitution Test which requires the substitution of certain symbols for numbers,—this activity was thought to be similar to translating, especially from English into a foreign language; and the Kelley Opposites Test.

This battery of seven tests was administered in seven high schools to a number of entering pupils who elected a foreign language.

The only criterion of success used was the term marks in foreign language. These marks are so unreliable that the resulting coefficients of correlation can be considered only as "promising" and indicative of the probable fact that the method would produce much better results with a more stable criterion.

By means of a regression equation, Kelley selected a battery of three tests which when weighted as follows gave the best results: Briggs Analogies (4), Kelley-Trabue Completion (2), Free Association (1). As evidence



that the tests were measuring special ability to learn foreign languages, the weighted scores of the battery were correlated with pupils' marks in English. The correlation was 0.31. Of the pupils in the highest quartile of the battery scores, 71.1% received marks of 80 or better on examinations, while only 18.1% of those in the lowest quartile received similar high marks.

CASTANEDA, E. E.—*Reducing the Number of Failures*. Hispania, 1923, pp. 240-243.

PAPER consists of two parts that have little connection. The second part of the paper reports the results of administering the Wilkins Prognosis Test. The correlation (exact figure not given) between scores on the Wilkins Test and term examination marks is reported to be very high, and writer would refuse admission to persons making a low score on the test.

COLVIN, S. S.—*Mental Tests and Linguistic Ability*. J. Educ. Psy., 1923, pp. 1-20.

LINGUISTIC ability affects performance in most of the mental tests now used. It may raise some scores above the level of actual intelligence; its most serious effect is in lowering scores of persons whose only handicap is lack of verbal training. These cases probably do not exceed ten or twenty per cent. of the population. If it is planned to use test scores for administrative purposes, they should be checked against other criteria such as silent reading ability, social and economic status, and non-verbal tests. Reports results obtained in Brown University.

HINES, H. C.—*Measuring Intelligence*. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1923. xxiv + 270 pp. \$1.20.

AN account, as free as possible of technical terminology

and statistical procedures, of the development of individual and group intelligence tests, their construction and standardization, their uses and limitations, and a discussion of the educational and broad social implications of the results of testing.

MONROE, W. S.—*An Introduction to the Theory of Educational Measurements*. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1923. xxiv + 364 pp. \$1.90.

A BOOK for those interested in the technique and theory of test-construction and test-criticism. Following a general survey of types of tests and scales, the author describes their construction, considers the types of scores that might be obtained, outlines a scheme for evaluation of a test or scale, and treats in outline the statistical methods used in the construction and standardization of these devices. The standardized educational test is not proposed as a substitute for, but as a supplement to, teachers' examinations.

MCCALL, W. A.—*How to Experiment in Education*. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1923. xiv + 281 pp. \$2.60.

AN excellent introduction to methodology and experimental literature.

MCCALL, W. A.—*How to Measure in Education*. New York, Macmillan, 1923. xiv + 416 pp. \$3.25.

A TEXT primarily for students of education and for those interested in test construction. Little direct reference is made to any specific tests. The author shows clearly how standardized tests may be (and should be) used in classifying pupils, diagnosing school failures or weaknesses, guiding teaching, evaluating the efficiency of instruction, and giving educational and vocational guidance. Part II

describes the various techniques for constructing and standardizing tests, scaling tests, and for determining their reliability and validity. Part III outlines graphical and statistical methods with which every student of scientific education must become familiar. The book is of importance historically as giving the first text-book descriptions of the uses of certain devices in education,—the true-false test and the T-scale.

PRESSEY, S. L. and PRESSEY, L. C.—*Introduction to the Use of Standard Tests*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, World Book Co., 1923. vi + 263 pp. \$1.80.

A TEXT for the general reader, and for use in classes in schools of education. In Part I the authors discuss the values and limitations of standardized tests. There are four types in educational use to-day: general ability tests; tests for general survey of school subjects; tests for the diagnosis of specific disabilities and the discovery of specific weaknesses; and practice exercises for remedial instruction. For only a few subjects of the curriculum, notably arithmetic, are all types of tests available. This section includes a chapter on elementary statistics, and one on certain misuses of tests and test data. Part II deals with tests for specific subjects of the elementary and secondary school. Approximately four pages are devoted to a description of the major types of tests for foreign languages. Part III contains chapters on the measurement of general ability, how to construct and standardize tests, how to work out a testing programme and how to utilize the results of tests.

BROODBANK, A. J. P.—*Are present-day public examinations consistent with sound method of language-teaching?* Mod. Lang., 1924, pp. 112-114.

IF teachers are forced to employ methods other than those they conceive to be sound, the fault lies not with them but with the type of paper set at the examinations. If tests could be set on more rational lines, the pupils would be able to prove that they have a wider and more practical knowledge of their various languages than they are given credit for having at the present day.

TRABUE, M. R.—*Measuring Results in Education*. New York, American Book Company, 1924. 492 pp. \$1.90.

AN excellent work on the technique of measurement by standard tests that is relatively easy to understand and yet the scientific product of an investigator who has first-hand experience with tests. It does not, however, deal directly with modern language testing.

CHIVERS, W. B.—*Further Correlations of School Subjects*. Forum of Education, 1925, pp. 145-152.

A STUDY of the correlations of school subjects in the 3rd and 5th forms of an English secondary school. Ability was measured by old-type examinations. Approximately one hundred pupils' records were obtained in each form. While English has a significant correlation with all subjects except algebra and physics, French marks show a low positive or negative correlation with all school subjects but English, where it is .53.

DECKER, W. C.—*Oral and Aural Tests as Integral Parts of the Regents' Examination*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1925, pp. 369-371.

BECAUSE of the time limit for examinations (two and three-quarter hours), it does not seem practicable to give individual oral tests. No such reason can be urged against



the introduction of aural tests as an integral part of the examinations. The first forty-five minutes could be devoted to the aural tests and the remaining two hours to the rest of the examination. The article enumerates the advantages and probable results of such a test.

HANDSCHIN, C. H.—*Values and Kinds of Examinations.*

Mod. Lang. Jour., 1925, pp. 289-291.

DEFENDS examinations on the ground that they compel students to organize and correlate materials, to memorize facts, to work accurately, and to develop originality. No one type of examination will suffice; some should measure control over limited amounts of material, others call for original production, others include a problem or project. All examinations should be timed, and foreign language tests should be given and answered in the language used in instruction.

JORDAN, J. N.—*Prognosis in Foreign Language in Secondary Schools.* Sch. Rev., 1925, pp. 541-546.

REPORTS the results of the use of the Wilkins Prognosis Tests for two years. In 1922-3, the writer tested and observed eighty-one foreign language pupils. Of the eighty-one pupils, twenty-four made scores of three hundred or less. Of these twenty-four, twenty-one, or 87.5 per cent., were marked "inferior" or "failure" by their teachers, who did not know the Wilkins test scores. The correlation between the prediction scores and teachers' marks was .746. The test was repeated in 1923-4 in the same school. The correlation of the one hundred and eight prediction scores and teachers' marks was .486, only fairly significant. The writer considers the correlations high enough to warrant further investigation looking to prognosis and educational advice.

LEMPER, L. H.—*Objective vs. Subjective Tests in Modern Languages*. *Mod. Lang. Jour.*, 1925, pp. 175-177.

THIS article describes an experiment in the Kansas State Agricultural College.

Three instructors assigned values to an examination paper with eight questions of the subjective type. The questions dealt with conjugations, rules with examples, translation from French to English and from English to French. No instructions were given as to how to mark the questions. Twenty-eight papers were graded. The marks given by the three instructors to the subjective test showed an average deviation from each other of five and four-tenths. In five cases the average deviation was more than eleven. In eight cases the grades given by two of the instructors deviated by ten or more.

An objective test was prepared, consisting largely of French sentences with blanks to be filled in. A number of verb forms were given in English and translation into French was called for. Each point was given a definite value, so that no matter who scored the paper the result would be the same. It required five minutes of the pupils' time, the subjective, seventy. It could be scored in about one third the time it took to grade the subjective type.

All correlations are low; they are higher between a general intelligence test and the objective test than between the former and the subjective test.

BARLOW, W. M.—(*Address*), *Hispania*, 1926, pp. 31-38. A RELIABLE prognosis test would go far toward the solution of the modern language problem in secondary schools.

Pp. 33-34 describe how New York attempted to limit the number permitted to elect modern languages. In commercial schools and commercial courses pupils were not admitted to modern language classes in the first

semester unless they came with the highest general rating of "A" from the elementary schools. Pupils coming to academic schools were classified in three equal groups, supposedly according to relative standing. The children of group three, the lowest group, were subjected to intelligence tests to determine whether they might or might not take up a modern foreign language in their first term. These regulations have proven unsatisfactory and the elementary school rating in English has been substituted for the general rating previously used. This plan is also unscientific, as there is no evidence that the rating in English is any more reliable as a basis for determining probable success in modern language classes than was the general rating. The writer's experience leads him to believe that children with low I.Q.'s can profit from foreign language study.

PATERSON, D. G., and LANGLIE, T. A.—*Influence of Sex on Scholarship Ratings*. Educ. Adm. & Sup., 1926, pp. 458-468.

GROUP intelligence tests often reveal sex differences in favour of boys, while many scholastic tests show girls to be definitely superior. The authors report that the latter condition tends to disappear when new-type examinations are used. They attribute the higher academic scores to the greater neatness, spelling-accuracy, composition ability, etc. of girls.

PATERSON, D. G.—*Preparation and Use of New-type Examinations, a Manual for Teachers*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, World Book Co., 1926. vi + 87 pp. 70 cents.

A CLEAR, non-technical primer on the subject, with a practical method of converting actual scores into grades and marks, a point that is usually overlooked. There is an annotated bibliography, including journal articles.

BOLTON, F. E.—*Do Teachers' Marks Vary as Much as Supposed?* Educ., 1927, pp. 23-39.

A CHECK on the widely-quoted experiments of Starch, in which wide variation was reported in the marks assigned by different teachers to the same paper (English). Article reports results of marking twenty-four arithmetic papers by twenty-two teachers. The average of all variations is only 5.1 per cent., and only 6 per cent. of the papers show any considerable spread. The greatest diversity appeared in the marking of poor papers. The writer criticizes Starch's interpretation of his own data, and concludes that teachers' marks are probably safe criteria for promotion.

FEIDL, B. C.—*A Study in Foreign Language Prognosis.* Mod. Lang. Jour., 1927, pp. 298-314.

REPORTS a series of tests devised by the author for predicting success in a foreign language. There are two vocabulary tests, one for use with students who work with the grammar-translation method, and one for those who use a direct method. Other tests used are: memory for long English sentences, presented visually and read aloud in unison, perception of three-syllable nonsense words read aloud by the instructor; the number of words a pupil can give as associates for an English word; ability to supply missing words in a context; ability to form sentences including pairs of English words; rearrangement of sentences in a correct order. The tests were given to one hundred and twenty-three students, and correlated with term marks obtained by these students in French and German. Of those in the lowest quarter on the battery of tests 32 per cent. failed, and 15.4 per cent. made a grade of "B" or better. Of those in the upper quarter on the tests, 60.6 per cent. made a grade of "B" or better, while only 2.8 per cent. failed.



KELLEY, T. L.—*Interpretation of Educational Measurements*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, World Book Company, 1927. xiii + 363 pp. \$2.20.

THIS work presents a critical interpretation of educational testing and provides measures of reliability for all the well-known intelligence and educational tests. For modern language tests it needs to be supplemented by the study prepared by V. A. C. Henmon and published by the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages (New York, Macmillan, 1928). Kelley's work is especially valuable because of its statistical procedure in the interpretation of test scores for purposes of pupil classification and educational guidance. For individual diagnosis, he finds that the majority of tests now available are of questionable value. The book contains as well an historical survey of mental measurement and an extensive bibliography of scientific literature on the subject.

WALTERS, F. C.—*Psychological Tests in Porto Rico*. Sch. and Soc., 1927, pp. 231-233.

THE test is composed of a Spanish and an English section. An attempt was made to equate the two sections as a basis for estimating relative ability in the two languages. The results indicate that, other things being equal, the high school graduate makes a score about 20 per cent. higher when the test is written in Spanish than when it is written in English.

Some little work has been done on the establishment of the reliability of school marks for high schools on the Island. Correlations are given here. First year English, second year English, .39. First year Spanish with second, .51. Average of the correlations for marks in English and Spanish, .44.

WHIPPLE, G. M.—*The Improvement of Educational Research*. Sch. and Soc., 1927, pp. 249-259.

THE author deals with a thankless task, that of pointing out major types of error in present-day research in education, but has written an article that should be read by anyone who feels the urge to begin "investigation". The need for knowledge of work previously done in the field, the avoidance of futile problems, the necessity for adequate controls, and of preliminary investigations designed to disclose these, careful and informed use of quantitative methods, and a presentation of findings in terms that will be intelligible to those for whom the reports are intended, are but a few of the desiderata discussed.

WOOD, B. D.—*New York Experiments with New-Type Modern Language Tests*. New York, Macmillan, 1927. (Vol. I of the Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages). xix + 339 pp.

THE three articles which make up this volume describe the results obtained from French and Spanish tests given in the junior high schools of New York City in 1925, similar tests (including German and physics) administered in the same year as part of the examination of the Regents of the State of New York, when the examination period was divided equally between new-type and old-type tests, and a second survey of achievement in French and Spanish in the junior high schools of New York City carried out in 1926. Besides discussions of such pertinent problems as the validity and reliability of the tests and examinations which were used, of overlapping, and the relative costs of the two methods of examining, there are useful summaries and recommendations.

## VII. TEXTS USED ABROAD (SAMPLES)

REUM, A.—*Petit Dictionnaire de style, à l'usage des allemands, publié avec le concours de M. Louis Chambille*. Leipzig, Weber (n.d., ca. 1910). viii + 696 pp. \$3.90.

A DICTIONARY of synonyms, idioms, syntactical constructions and a Roget *Thesaurus* of French; for example, under *abandonner* we have: the meaning in German; synonyms,—quitter (*meist für Kurze Zeit*), délaissé (*in Not*), . . .; adverbial epithets,—complètement, entièrement . . .; syntactical constructions,—abandonner sa famille . . ., un enfant (*aussetzen* = *exposer*) . . .; s'abandonner à qn. (*ou à qc.*); synonyms,—se laisser aller, se livrer; adverbial complements,—tout entier, sans réserve, aveuglement; grammatical construction,—s'— à Dieu, au gré des vents, aux plaisirs, à un vice, etc.

Under *poule*, to take another example, are words with which *poule* is used, such as glousser, caqueter, gratter, pondre, couver, etc.; proverbial phrases like *tuer la poule aux oeufs d'or* (La Fontaine, *Fables* V, 13) etc., and derivations like poulet, poulette, poussin, poularde, poulailler.

In the preparation of this compilation, the authors have used works like those of Boissière, *Dictionnaire analogique*, 1862, Boiste, *Pan-Lexique*, 1851, Larive et Fleury, *Dictionnaire français encyclopédique*, 1901, Ploetz, *Vocabulaire systématique*, Berlin, 1892, Rouaix, *Dictionnaire-manuel-illustré des idées suggérées par les mots*, 1898, etc.

PICHON, J. E.—*Leçons pratiques de vocabulaire, de syntaxe et de lecture littéraire*. Freiburg im Breisgau, Bielefeld, 1911, 1922 (3e ed.). 272 pp. \$1.00.

THIS belongs to the series known as the "Méthode Pichon", which contains direct method publications for English, French, German, Italian and Spanish. From the same publisher comes the well-known series by Kron, *The Little Londoner*, *Le Petit Parisien*, etc., and useful correspondence manuals.

The title indicates the scope of the work. Numerous illustrations explain words (parts of the body, details about the house, etc.) without further definition. The literary passages, taken chiefly from Zola, deal with practical life, and have, like the rest of the book, an extensive vocabulary, explained by picture or by definition in French. Like the Kron series this work lacks restraint in the choice of words and idioms.

HOLZWARTH, C. H.—*Gruss aus Deutschland*. Boston, D. C. Heath, 1913. vi + 190 pp. \$1.44.

A WELL-ILLUSTRATED travel book that can be read by pupils with a German vocabulary of seven hundred and fifty stem words. The text was prepared because the author felt that the poor results obtained in teaching beginners to read were due to the demands for a vocabulary running into three or four thousand words.

GONNEAU, P., and SÉNÉCHAL, CHR.—*La France et les français, livre d'initiation française*. 5e ed., Paris, Desforges, 1920. ix + 467 pp. 65 cents.

THE object of this collection of extracts is to reveal France in such different aspects as, land and people, thought and art, literature, genius, character and civilization. It is intended for foreigners as well as natives.

Contents: La terre de France; le peuple; la France au travail; figures françaises; la pensée française; la littérature, l'esprit français; l'humour; l'art; conclusion.



SCHWEITZER, C., SIMONNOT, E.—*Deutsches Lesebuch mit Sprechübungen für Sexta*. Paris, Colin, 1923 (20th ed.) 114 pp.

THE "cours Schweitzer" also contains other readers, and wall pictures. The whole book is in German, and is intended for use with the direct method. Besides passages dealing with the pupil's environment and the seasons, there are poems and anecdotes. Each lesson has some grammar, which is taught in complete sentences; at the back of the book there are paradigms for reference.

ROSZMANN, PH.—*Französisches Lese-und Realienbuch (Kulturkundliches Lesebuch) für die Mittel und Oberstufe*. Hanover, Meyer, 1925 (Sechste Auflage). ix + 428 pp. \$1.55; Wörterbuch, 45 cents.

THIS comprehensive and instructive anthology, which is illustrated and has maps and a plan of Paris, deals with contemporary France, history, and includes political selections, proverbs, a history of literature, notes, and chronological tables.

SCHMIDT-VORGT, PLATZ UND HAVENSTEIN.—*Deutsche Kultur, ein Lesebuch von deutschen Art und Kunst für die Oberstufe höherer Schulen*. Frankfurt a. M., Diesterweg, 1925. 456 pp. Illustrated. \$2.00.

PROVIDES a complete picture of modern German "Kultur" through extracts from representative writers, under the following headings: Land und Volk, Gestalten, Staat, Gesellschaft, Gemeinschaft, Arbeit und Wirtschaft, von deutscher Sprache, von deutscher Kunst.

An invaluable work of reference for a school or college library.

BODE, E., and PAUL, A.—*Seeds and Fruits, a Key to British and American Problems of Our Days*. Frankfurt a. M., Diesterweg, 1926 (3rd ed.). xii + 347 pp. \$1.70.

A "KULTUR" book that consists of extracts from English and American writers, and provides an extraordinary amount of useful information, with a list of books for further study, a glossary, index, notes and maps. The vocabulary is not reduced, as the work is intended apparently for reference or advanced pupils. "Durch das Erkennen des Fremden werden wir uns ja gerade des Wertes unseres Ergenbesitzes in erhöhtem Masze bewusst", a remark that reflects the authors' attitude in the discussion which has raged in Germany since the beginning of the world war as to the purpose served by a knowledge of other languages and through them the civilization of other peoples.

Contents: National character: society and social life, parliament (constitution, parties, law); the British Empire of to-day; industry; religion and church life; philosophy and political economy; political thought; language, literature, press, art, music; education and sport; England and Germany; the United States of America.

—Another work that might likewise serve as a model is F. Roeder's *Englischer Kulturunterricht*, Leipzig, Teubner, 1925.

HAUSKNECHT, E.—*The English Student, Lehrbuch zur Einführung in die englische Sprache und Landeskunde*. Berlin, Herbig, 1926. (25te Auflage). v + 140 pp. \$1.10.

A WELL graded chrestomathy (preceded by a chapter on pronunciation) of prose and verse of class-room, literary and historical interest. In the supplement are: words and

phrases for beginners; grammar forms put into life by action; *e.g.*, "Look here; I take the chalk; now I am writing on the blackboard," etc.; series-sentences, of the Gouin type, *e.g.*, "Little George gets up at six o'clock; he washes his hands; face and neck," etc.

WECHSZLER, E., GRABERT, W., SCHILD, F. W.—*L'Esprit français, ein Lesebuch zur Wesenskunde Frankreichs*. Frankfurt a. M., Diesterweg, 1926. vii + 256 pp. + 12 plates. \$1.45.

"KULTURLESEBUCH: Im Unterschied zu anders gerichteten früheren Versuchen will das, was hier geboten wird, weder eine Realienkunde noch eine Auswahl vorbildlicher Lesestücke sein. Ein Unterbau für die Kenntnis und Erkenntnis der Sprache wie der Literatur soll hier geleistet . . ." The authors generalize on French character as follows: "Jeder echte Franzose vereinigt in sich den Sensualisten mit dem Rationalisten." There is a useful running commentary on the text.

Contents: *Physionomie d'ensemble de la France; formation de la nation française par la fusion des races; les fondateurs de l'unité française; la conscience nationale, qu'est-ce que l'esprit français?; les forces dynamiques du caractère français; écoles littéraires*. Reproductions of French paintings illustrate four characteristic styles of French literature (last chapter): *le style pathétique; le doute et l'ironie; le style élégant et agréable; le style sociable et didactique*.

—Attention may be called here to the Collection Teubner, publiée à l'usage de l'enseignement secondaire: *Paris et les Parisiens*, par R. Delbost; *Le midi de la France*, par G. Cirot; *La Provence et la Corse*, par G. Cirot. They contain selections, and are illustrated.

CLARAC, E., WINTZWEILLER, E., BODEVIN, L.—*Deutsches Lesebuch (Deutsche Literatur und Kultur). Classe de première.* Paris, Masson, 1927 (5th ed.). 362 pp. 50 cts.

THIS is one volume of a series, ranging from "classe de première" to "sixième". The present work is an anthology illustrating German literature and civilization since the 18th century. There are exercises for reproduction, grammatical transposition, and themes for composition (but no translation).

DELPY, G., VIÑAS, A.—*El Español en los textos.* Paris, Hachette, 1927. 301 pp. 18 fr.

THE texts are chosen from the works of modern authors and are grouped under fourteen chapters: El cuerpo humano; los vestidos; la familia; diversiones; vida religiosa; industria; etc. There are notes and exercises, all in Spanish.

GALANDY, BALAINAC, V.—*Vocabulaire analogique, et préparation à la composition française, adapté aux nouveaux programmes par G. Jeancoux.* Paris, Delagrave, 1928, (6th ed.). 202 pp. 55 cents.

THIS practical work, intended primarily for French elementary schools, might serve for advanced conversation or composition work here. The vocabulary does not go beyond the "limites de la langue courante", although it is extensive. There are twenty-two illustrations.

*Harrap's Bilingual Series.* London, Harrap (n.d., recent), 45 cents each.

THIS useful and economical series consists of hand-books for the traveller (French, Italian, German, Spanish, Danish, Dutch) with translations on opposite pages, and



sufficiently modern to include the automobile and its parts. There is also a literary series, likewise provided with translations.

VERNAY, I., MONTAG, W.—*Miroir de la France et des français*. Paderborn, Schöningh (n.d., recent). vii + 239 pp.

A BEAUTIFUL book of selections grouped about such themes as, L'enfant et la famille, la préparation à la vie, la langue française, le Français et son pays, La France hors de France (including selections from *Maria Chapdelaine*, in which the authors miss the meaning of the French-Canadian *il va mouiller*=*pleuvoir*), la nation française à travers les siècles, and so forth. There are pictorial illustrations, brief notes and a vocabulary.

### VIII. MISCELLANEOUS

CLARK, J. S. M.—*French and English in the Province of Quebec*. Nineteenth Century, 1927. Vol. CII, pp. 327-336.

OF sociological significance chiefly. Reviews historically the development of bilingualism in Canada with special attention to Quebec. Points out that the linguistic problem is complicated by racial and religious issues. Implies that English-speaking children must learn, not merely to read, but also to speak French, if sectionalism is to be avoided.

FOUILLÉE, A.—*Psychologie du peuple français*. Paris, Alcan, 1921 (6th ed., 1st 1898). iv + 391 pp. \$1.10.

CONTENTS: Bases des caractères nationaux; les races en

France; caractère Gaulois; caractère français; langue; littérature; arts, philosophie; jugement des étrangers; dépopulation et alcoôlisme; dégénérescence ou crise?

*Premier congrès de la langue française au Canada, Québec, 24-30 juin, 1912. Compte rendu. Québec, L'Action Sociale, 1913. 693 pp. \$2.50.*

"LE Congrès est convoqué pour l'étude, la défense et l'illustration de la langue et des lettres françaises au Canada"—a modern echo of Du Bellay's manifesto of 1549. Much in this large tome is rhetorical and vague, but attention may be called to certain chapters: De l'exercice des droits reconnus à la langue française au Canada (Belcourt); La langue française et l'avenir de notre race (Bourassa); Rapport de la sous-section philologique (Chartier); La Louisiane française (Fortier).

*Fédération de l'Alliance Française aux Etats-Unis et au Canada. Compte rendu du Congrès de Langue et de Littérature Française, tenu au Collège de la Ville de New York, 1913. Secrétariat de la Fédération de l'Alliance Française, 147 Fourth Avenue, New York. 104 pp. \$1.25.*

PURPOSE of the conference: "Il s'agit de discuter entre collègues quelques points de méthode sur lesquels plane un peu d'incertitude; il s'agit de déterminer l'orientation générale de l'enseignement du français ou de la littérature française à ses divers degrés; il s'agit enfin de marquer l'état actuel de développement de l'enseignement de notre langue et de notre littérature aux Etats-Unis, de signaler les lacunes et d'indiquer les remèdes."

Sample contents: l'Enseignement du français dans les high schools (W. B. Snow); The loss to culture in the use of the direct method (G. L. Swiggett); On the

choice of French authors to be read in high school (W. R. Price); *Explication d'auteurs français* (A. Terracher).

PRICE, W. R.—*One Cause of Poor Results in Modern Language Teaching*. Sch. Rev., 1914, pp. 98-102.

"ALL my experience with teachers of modern languages in the state of New York (not considering native born teachers nor American born teachers who have studied abroad) convinces me that the chief cause of poor results in modern teaching in our secondary schools is the fact that teachers do not know the language they are attempting to teach".

BELL, C. H.—*Experiences of an American Exchange Teacher in Germany*. Educ. Rev., 1914, pp. 28-56.

COMMENTS on large number of pupils in German foreign language classes, inadequacy of class-room facilities, use of etymology in explaining new words and advantage of segregating sexes. In order to prevent interference which arises when pupils go to a second teacher with different standards, method, accent perhaps, the language teacher often retains the same boys throughout much of their language course.

FITZGERALD, J.—*Languages and the College Preparatory Course*. Educ. Rev., 1915, pp. 168-190.

THERE is no universally accepted international language, and English has small chance of becoming the world language. Hence it is necessary to learn to speak several languages. This cannot be accomplished until we begin foreign language study earlier. The French student begins his first foreign language at the age of eleven, the Belgian at the age of twelve, the Austrian at nine, the German at nine and the British at nine. In all these countries and for

all these languages, the number of hours per week of recitation is much higher than among us.

DE MONTIGNY, L.—*La Langue française au Canada, son état actuel*. Ottawa, chez l'auteur, 364 Chapel Street, 1916. xxxiii + 187 pp.

A STUDY of French as spoken in Canada; its origins, and corruption, chiefly through anglicisms; with suggestions for restoring good usage; and discussion of such interesting psychological problems as the doctrine, held by many French-Canadians, of the indivisibility of faith, race and language, and the consequent isolation from modern France and her literature, which, according to the author, could contribute powerfully to the purification of the language and its natural growth. The author seems to be well informed, but as is usually the case, unfortunately, when the French language of Canada is discussed, his treatment tends to be acrimonious and controversial.—The following example of extreme anglicization is quoted by the author: "Si vous voulez me spérer un wrench pour settler le washer du sink qui s'est démanché", with the interesting foot-note: "Avant de me démentir *ex abrupto*, les rédacteurs du *Droit* feraient bien d'aller se promener un peu dans les rues de Hull ou de la basse-ville d'Ottawa; ceux de la *Vérité*, dans les rues de Saint-Sauveur; ceux de la *Croix*, dans les rues du Mile-End ou d'Hochelaga."

JOHNSTON, O. M.—*University Training of the High School Teacher of Modern Foreign Languages with particular Reference to French*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1918, pp. 95-99.

A STUDY of some of the requisites for those who expect to teach a modern foreign language. Those discussed are: accurate pronunciation and a good knowledge of phone-



tics, for both of which the university is responsible; training in prose composition which includes translation from English; practice in putting one's thoughts directly into the foreign language; and an abundance of reading.

SACHS, J.—*Desirability of a Syllabus of French and German Texts*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1918, pp. 139-149.

DISCUSSES the need for some other books than literary works for students beginning the second year of language study, and enumerates criteria (subjective) by which to determine the choice of such literature.

STROEBE, L. L.—*The Background of the Modern Language Teacher*. Educ., 1918-19, pp. 573-579.

THE need for instruction of those who expect to teach French, German, Spanish, or any other language, in the geography, history, political institutions, etc., of the foreign country is pointed out.

The books used for such study must be written in the language of the country they describe.

WARSHAW, J.—*Teachers' Courses in Spanish*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1921, pp. 200-209.

THIS article enumerates some of the difficulties in training teachers of Spanish. A greater mass of informational material must be presented and more detailed directions given for self-orientation than in the other languages. There is also the problem of which Spanish pronunciation to teach. The author presents a list of topics under which a profitable course in the teaching of Spanish may be outlined. The Spanish teacher should be familiar with the merits and defects of as many texts as possible.

HOSKINS, J. P.—*Statistical Survey of the Effect of the World War on Modern Language Enrolment in the Secondary Schools of the United States*. Mod. Lang. Jour., 1925, pp. 87-107.

CONTAINS three tables which give a brief survey in statistical form of the growth of modern language study in the secondary schools since the year 1889. The first striking feature is the tremendous increase in general high school attendance, resulting from the war. Equally striking is the startling decrease in German enrolment. French has not profited by the war as much as might be supposed. The fact that Spanish has outstripped French in no fewer than sixteen states has served to retard the growth of French, and furnishes ground for the belief that Latin influence on our civilization will henceforward be divided between the Spanish and the French. As Spanish has already passed its peak, while German is beginning to win back some of its lost prestige, it is not unlikely that modern language enrolment as a whole will ultimately come back to approximately its pre-war percentage, although the proportion of enrolment in the three languages will be permanently altered. Pp. 94-107 discuss the effects of the war on modern language study in the different sections of the country.

KANDEL, I. L.—*Educational Year-book of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University*, 1924, 1925. New York, Macmillan, 1925, 1926 (In progress). \$3.25, \$3.85.

THE volume of this annual survey corresponding to 1924 contains articles on Canada by W. E. Macpherson (the junior high school, preparation of teachers, statistics), France (new courses of study), Germany ("Dr. Hellpach, the Minister of Education in Baden, believes the school

with Latin and English to be the school of the future. French is declining, partly for nationalistic reasons, partly on account of Spanish, which in Prussia, where it has been introduced in more than one hundred schools, and particularly in Hamburg and Bremen, is frequently obligatory in the Oberrealschule and the Deutsche Oberschule. The lack of teachers and text-books for this language prevents a wider extension of this experiment.") Italy (the Gentile reform), the United States, the problem of method, and the new education movement.

Volume II is similar in plan and scope. Attention may be called to the growth of advanced courses in the secondary schools of England, a development that has made remarkable progress since 1917. A table shows the predominance of science, mathematics, and modern studies, with a negligible number of classical courses. Advanced work in secondary schools is definitely of post-matriculation grade, and to some extent overlaps the work of the universities. Under France, information is given about the new course of study (1925) providing for a complete cycle of modern secondary studies extending over a period of seven years. The chief purpose of the teachers of modern languages is to be directed toward training the judgment as well as memory, that is, there is to be an extensive study of foreign languages and civilizations, organized so as to broaden the intellectual horizon of students. In the section devoted to Germany will be found an analysis of the important "Richtlinien für die Lehrpläne der höheren Schulen Preussens" (1925), a government document much discussed in German modern language journals, (*e.g.*, by Zeiger in *Die Neueren Sprachen*, 1925, pp. 333-346). Two ideas presented are of special interest: activity instruction, and the application of adolescent psychology in instruction. Proposals are being

considered for the reform of the leaving examination. The essay in foreign language might be dropped, and an oral examination introduced in a subject selected by the candidate. Marks should be given on the basis of a thorough consideration of the candidate's ability, instead of on the basis of a uniform numerical marking system.

RICHARD, C.—*L'enseignement en France*. Paris, Colin, 1925. xv + 580 pp. \$1.85.

CONTENTS: Bibliographie sommaire (publications périodiques, recueils de documents et d'informations, ouvrages); Organisation: Autorités administratives, Conseils, Comités; Caractéristique des divers enseignements; Personnel enseignant et élèves; Moyens d'études; Formalités et frais; Diplômes; Dispenses et équivalences; Statistiques; Répertoire des établissements d'enseignement public dépendant des divers Ministères et des principaux établissements privés.

KANDEL, I. L. (editor)—*Twenty-five years of American Education*. New York, Macmillan, 1926. \$2.25.

A SERIES of essays by former students of Paul Monroe, and an excellent survey of modern tendencies, their history and meaning.

LE GRESLEY, O.—*L'Enseignement du français en Acadie (1609-1926)*. Mamers, Enault, 1926 (2nd ed.). 255 pp.

THIS doctoral thesis of the University of Paris deals primarily with the vicissitudes and disabilities of elementary French instruction among the Acadians of the three Maritime provinces, but has also chapters on secondary schools and church colleges. According to the census of 1921 there are in the three provinces 189,701 French



and 810,627 English, the percentage of increase among the French rising from 32% in 1881 to 36% in 1901.—“L’avenir s’annonce donc plein d’espérance. Persécutés dans leur langue depuis plus de deux cents ans, les acadiens s’y sont attachés avec d’autant plus d’ardeur . . . Libre aujourd’hui pour sa religion, puisse l’Acadien jouir bientôt de la liberté complète de parler (*sic*) et d’enseigner sa langue, . . . Quand sonnera cette heure ardemment désirée, l’Acadien chantera son entière délivrance . . .” (pp. 244-246).

MOORE, N. E.—*An Analysis of Study Questions Found in Text-books for the Intermediate Grades*. Elem. Sch. Jour., 1926. pp. 194-208.

A FACTUAL study of types of questions found in reading, history and geography texts for grades IV-VI. These questions are then classified psychologically, *i.e.*, according to the form of mental process required. The scheme of classification may be suggestive to modern language text-book writers.

BOY, J. C.—*Tools of Research Needed in the Preparation of Dissertations for the Doctorate in Education*. Sch. & Soc., 1927, pp. 53-54.

REPORTS that in two hundred and four Teachers College (Columbia) dissertations, one out of six used material available only in a foreign language.

GARDINER, L. J.—*Outlines of French Literature, with Chapters on the History of France*. London, University Tutorial Press, 1927. xii + 474 pp. \$1.90.

THIS book covers the whole of French history and literature and gives also an account of some modern French institutions. It is intended for the first two years of

specialized French studies in secondary schools, which, to judge by the reading lists, corresponds to the first two years at our universities.

LEARNED, W. S.—*The Quality of the Educational Process in the United States and in Europe*. New York, The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 522 Fifth Avenue, 1927. x + 133 pp. Free on application.

A VALUABLE comparative study dealing with the curriculum and its application, training of teachers, differentiation of ability, size of schools, etc. The superiority of European education rests in part on more clearly defined aims, greater selectivity (smaller numbers), intensity, continuity of studies, and closer correlation of school and university.

*Report of the Minister of Education, Province of Ontario, for the year 1926*. Toronto, 1927. xiv + 316 pp. Free on application.

CONTAINS a report of a visit to England by I. M. Levan as exchange inspector. There are not more than twenty or twenty-five pupils in the classes: the school day is usually divided into seven periods of forty or forty-five minutes each. In a representative school there are for French five periods per week for the first three years and six in the fourth, making a total of twenty-one, as compared with sixteen for English and sixteen for Latin (begun in the second year). In the same school two advanced courses are provided, modern studies and science and mathematics, with, in the case of the former, sixteen hours (for two years) in history, ten in English, two in Latin, sixteen in French, twelve in German; in the latter course there are two hours in English, none in

history and Latin, ten in French, none in German. The schools are more liberally staffed than in Ontario. Classes are smaller; text-books are not prescribed. As there is not sufficient school accommodation to supply the demand for secondary education, only the brightest scholars are admitted, admission being regarded as a privilege which may be lost if misused: hence an earnestness of purpose on the part of pupils and great regularity of attendance. The prescription of work in languages covers a wider range and embraces texts of a more difficult character, more especially in the higher forms. The reform method is practised in most of the schools by teachers who by residence and study abroad have acquired a good speaking knowledge of the language taught.

In the same publication is a report made by E. G. Savage, an English inspector, on his impressions of Ontario high schools: The schools are understaffed, the result being that most teachers must teach for every period of the week. In the languages, Latin and French, the rate of progress is slower than under any system with which he is acquainted. The many periods during which accidence and syntax alone are studied is so long drawn out that pupils lose interest. It is suggested that reading of real texts should be begun much sooner and that less time should be spent on laboriously working through exercises in which it is very difficult to find any real interest. They become a succession of tests of the ability to juggle with case endings and verb forms, but if these are not constantly encountered in the live words of a real author they become obliterated in the memory and no real appreciation of their use is retained by the time actual reading is begun.—Publication of Mr. Savage's report (in a fuller form) is announced from England. It may be had from H. M. Stationery Office, price 1*s.* 6*d.* net.

ROBERTSON, D. A.—*American Universities and Colleges*.

New York, Scribners, 1928. xii + 884 pp.

THIS encyclopaedic publication of the American Council on Education is more than a "Minerva", as, in addition to information, statistical and otherwise, about universities, their staffs and publications, it lists the specialties of teachers, gives detailed information about library resources by subjects, and contains an excellent introduction on the organization of education, as for example, admission requirements (suitable texts are named,—first year French, 100 to 175 pages; second, 250 to 400; third, 400 to 600; fourth, 600 to 1000,—but candidates are examined in translation at sight only).



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## PROBLEMS FOR INVESTIGATION<sup>1</sup>

The Committee on Modern Languages assumes provisionally as the four *immediate* objectives of instruction in the modern languages a progressive development—

1. Of the power to read the language.
2. Of the power to understand the language when spoken.
3. Of the power to speak the language.
4. Of the power to write the language.

The Committee postulates further the following as *ultimate* objectives which may possibly be attained through the study of the modern languages—

1. <sup>2</sup>Ability to read the language with ease and enjoyment.
2. Ability to communicate orally with natives of the country whose language has been studied.
3. Ability to communicate in writing with natives of the country whose language has been studied.
4. Increased ability to pronounce and understand foreign words and phrases occurring in English.
5. Increased ability in the accurate and intelligent use of English.
6. Increased power to learn other languages.
7. A more effective realization of the importance of habits of correct articulation and clear enunciation.

<sup>1</sup>Reprinted from Bulletin No. 3, published by the committee in October, 1925. Problems discussed in the report or in publications of the American and Canadian committees are marked by asterisks. Information on some of the others will be found in the section devoted to bibliography.

<sup>2</sup>In arranging the objectives, the question of relative importance has not been considered.

8. Increased knowledge of the history and institutions of the foreign country and a better understanding of its contribution to modern civilization.
9. Increased ability to understand ideals, standards, and traditions of other peoples.
10. Development of literary and artistic appreciation.
11. Development of a more adequate realization of the relation of the individual to society.
12. A clearer understanding of the history and nature of language.
13. Increased ability to discern relationships and make comparisons between subjects allied in form and content.
14. Development of habits of sustained effort.
15. The ability to make prompt and effective use of foreign discoveries and inventions.
16. Development of social adaptability through increased personal contacts with natives of other countries.

This statement of immediate and ultimate objectives constitutes a challenge to teachers of modern languages and to students of secondary education and educational psychology. The determination of the extent to which they are realized and realizable requires comprehensive experimentation and testing. In order to render the objectives more tangible, and to focus attention upon specific studies which may be undertaken experimentally or statistically by teachers of the modern languages or by students of education, the committee has formulated a list of problems for investigation and research. It is hoped that modern language departments in colleges and universities and departments of education will give consideration to these problems in the assignment of masters' and doctors' theses.

## A. FACTORS AND CONDITIONS IN ACHIEVEMENT

- 1.\*The effect on achievement of the age at which the modern language is begun.
- 2.\*The effect on achievement of the method used.
3. Variations in achievement due to general intelligence.
4. Variations in achievement due to the size of the school and to differences in teaching conditions.
5. Variations in achievement in classes taught by natives and by teachers trained in Canada.
- 6.\*The influence of previous language study on achievement.
- 7.\*Comparative study of achievement by pupils beginning a modern language in secondary school and in college.
8. The size of classes and resulting variations in achievement.
9. Variations in achievement in language classes meeting two, three, four, five, or more times weekly.
10. Comparative study of achievement in classes in which extensive reading is practised and in classes that read less and do more formal linguistic work.
- 11.\*Comparative achievement in modern language classes in the United States, in Canada, and in European countries.
12. Comparative study of achievement in modern language classes in experimental schools and in ordinary schools.
13. Comparative study of achievement in city school systems having supervisors of modern languages and in those without special supervision.
- 14.\*Interrelations of different language abilities and variations in achievement due thereto.

15. The effect of a general language course on progress in a modern language.
16. The effect of varying periods of disuse on the abilities in modern languages.
- 17.\*Increments of progress in modern language study by successive semesters.
- 18.\*Eye movements in reading languages at different stages of progress.
19. The effect on ability to read modern languages of oral practice *vs.* practice in translation.
20. The effect of varying distributions of class time between oral work, translation, free composition, and grammatical drill.
21. Comparative study of achievement in classes:  
(a) where much attention is paid to the acquisition of a good pronunciation; (b) where little attention is given to pronunciation.
22. Comparative study of achievement where two modern languages are begun: (a) at the same time; (b) at an interval of a year; (c) at other intervals.
- 23.\*A study of present practices and the validity of present methods of evaluating high school units by colleges and universities.
- 23a.\*A comparison by Provinces of achievement in the first year of Modern Language study.
- 23b. A comparative study by Provinces of achievement of matriculants in Canada.
- 23c.\*A comparative study (in Ontario) of the achievement of Honour Matriculation classes in Modern Languages and first year students in colleges.
- 23d. A comparative study of achievement in the first year of Modern Language study in Continuation Schools and in High Schools (Ontario).



- 23e.\*A comparative study of achievement in French of grade XI students in Quebec English schools and Ontario Honour Matriculants.
- 23f.\*A study of achievement in English in French schools.

## B. PROBLEMS IN TESTING ACHIEVEMENT

- 24.\*Comparative study as to validity and reliability of the true-false type, the Thorndike-McCall type, and the picture-supplement type of silent reading or comprehension tests in each of the languages.
- 25.\*Comparative study of functional grammar test technique (correction of errors, completion, multiple choice with and without English translations, and true-false).
- 26.\*Comparative study as to validity and reliability of vocabulary test techniques: translation, selective type (English), selective type (foreign language), with and without context.
27. Standard tests of speed of reading each modern language.
28. Correlations between functional grammar tests and formal grammar tests.
- 29.\*Interrelations between different abilities in modern languages and their bearings on achievement tests.
30. The validity of measuring ability in pronunciation by the ability to detect errors in pronunciation.
31. Composition scales in each of the languages for rating written work, and their reliability.
- 32.\*Composition scales for rating free compositions at the various levels in college entrance examinations.
- 33.\*Standardization of test material for measuring ability to understand the modern language when spoken.

34. Standard tests of ability to speak each of the modern languages.
35. Standard tests in the knowledge of the civilization of the foreign country: its history, its literature, and its institutions.

### C. PROGNOSIS TEST PROBLEMS

- 36.\*The validity and reliability of available prognostic tests.
37. A study of cases of genuine linguistic disability or incapacity not accompanied by low general intelligence.
- 38.\*A comparison of prediction on a basis of a general intelligence test, of school marks in other subjects, and of special aptitude tests.
- 39.\*A critical survey and analysis of the literature on the psychological processes involved in learning a foreign language.
- 40.\*The correlations and partial correlations between abilities in languages and other school subjects, and their bearings on prognosis.

### D. CURRICULUM PROBLEMS

#### I. VOCABULARY

41. Minimum vocabularies at various stages for each modern language.
- 42.\*Vocabulary tests on a basis of frequency for each modern language.
- 43.\*Critical examination of the size and character of vocabularies in widely used grammars and textbooks at the various stages.
44. The learning process in acquiring a vocabulary.
- 45.\*Critical study of the various ways of building vocabulary.

46. Effect on recognition vocabulary in the native and in the modern language of systematic attention to etymology.
47. Effect on vocabulary building of extensive *vs.* intensive reading.
- 48.\*Comparison of active and of passive vocabularies.
- 49.\*Comparative study of the size and character of vocabularies in text-books and grammars in French, German, Italian, and Spanish.
- 50.\*Frequency of occurrence in English of foreign words and phrases (especially French).
- 51.\*Comparative study of vocabularies in typical first-year courses with those in second-year courses.
- 52.\*An analysis of the vocabularies of the first 1000 or the first 2000 words in French, German, Italian, Spanish, English, and Latin to discover similarities and relationships.

## II. GRAMMAR

- 53.\*Syntax frequency lists based on current grammars and on representative literary and popular prose.
- 54.\*Collection of data as to grammars most widely used and the grammatical topics stressed in the classroom.
55. Comparative effectiveness of learning grammar formally and functionally.
- 56.\*Increments in the knowledge of grammar at intervals of a semester or of a year.
57. Comparative study of the effectiveness of direct and of grammar-translation methods on the knowledge of functional and of formal grammar.
- 58.\*A study of the frequency of grammatical errors in student exercises.
59. The variability in grammar and in composition texts in the high school and in the college.

## III. READING

- 60.\*The nature and amount of modern languages read at various stages in American, Canadian, and European schools. Relative attention to (*a*) realia; (*b*) geography, history, and institutions of foreign countries; and (*c*) literary material.
61. Comparative study of texts and reading assignments in modern languages where modern language study is begun in the first year in high school, in the third year, and in college.
62. The selection and gradation of reading material for the various years of the modern language course.
- 62a.\*The nature and amount of modern language reading for matriculation.
63. The variability of reading assignments and of texts in college courses in each of the modern languages.
64. The variability of reading material used in high school courses in each of the modern languages.
- 65.\*The methods used by institutions in defining "ability to read French and German" where such a requirement is in effect.
66. A comparative study of courses in modern languages in 1890, 1900, 1910, and 1920, where records are available.
- 67.\*The reading of modern languages after graduation from college by those not teaching the languages.
68. The knowledge of French, German, Italian, or Spanish history, literature, and institutions possessed by those who have studied the respective languages in comparison with those who have not.
69. Variability in the amount of reading in so-called extensive reading courses.



## IV. TRANSLATION

- 70. Value of practice in translation for developing reading power.
- 71. Interrelations between the ability to translate from the native into the foreign tongue and from the foreign into the native tongue.
- 72. Translation as a testing device *vs.* translation as a means of teaching the modern language.

## V. PHONETICS

- 73. A study of present-day methods of phonetic drill.
- 74. Relative progress in learning to pronounce: (*a*) in classes conducted by the phonetic method (physiological explanations and the use of phonetic transcription); (*b*) in classes where pronunciation is learned by imitation.
- 75. A study of the actual amounts of practice in pronunciation that students get in typical classes in each language.
- 76. Ability in pronunciation developed by native teachers as compared with teachers trained in Canada.
- 77. Experiment with the use of phonograph records in developing ability in pronunciation.
- 78.\*Variations in the time allotted to oral work.
- 79. The effectiveness of phonetic drill in correcting cases of particularly poor ability in pronunciation.
- 80. Methods of developing correct intonation in speaking and in reading the modern languages.
- 81. Frequency of characteristic errors in pronunciation in each language.

## E. LEARNING PROBLEMS

82. The learning curve in acquiring ability to read a language with daily or weekly record of growth in vocabulary and in ability to read.
83. The learning curve in acquiring ability to understand the spoken language with weekly records of progress.
84. The learning curve in acquiring ability to read and speak a language where the subject is living abroad.
85. The learning curve in acquiring ability to write a language (*e.g.*, five-minute compositions at weekly intervals with records of amount written and of decrease in errors).
86. The most effective distribution of time in learning a language.
87. The effect of various incentives on progress in learning (*e.g.*, travel abroad, preparation for foreign service, specific college requirements, etc.).
88. The effect on progress in ability to read of having students at regular intervals record the amount read in a given time.
89. Plateaus in the learning curve for the acquisition of ability to read a language.
90. A study of the strength of association from English to the foreign language and from the foreign language to English under different methods and conditions.
91. Study-habits of pupils in preparing reading lessons in modern languages.
- 91a. A study (in Quebec) of the effect of French and English milieu on achievement in French and English classes.

## F. METHODS

92. A study of the methods employed by successful teachers in building vocabularies (lists, drills, oral composition, etc.).
93. A study of methods used by exceptionally successful teachers in teaching pronunciation.
94. Methods employed to develop the ability to understand a spoken modern language.
95. Free composition *vs.* translation into the foreign language as a means of developing the ability to write a foreign language.
96. A study of methods used where training for foreign correspondence is the specific aim.
- 97.\*A study of frequency of errors in vocabulary, reading, speaking, and writing the modern languages.
98. A study of method as adapted to students at different ages (*e.g.*, at the secondary school and at the college age).
99. A study of the relative gain in the various abilities (*e.g.*, to read, to pronounce, to write, to understand, to speak) as a result of one or more types of method.
100. The teaching of syntax inductively *vs.* the teaching of rules systematically.
- 101.\*A study of prevailing modern language methods.

## G. TRANSFER VALUES

- 102.\*The effect of the study of the modern languages on English.
- 103.\*The effect of the study of Latin on progress in the modern languages.
104. The effect of the study of modern languages on the knowledge of English grammar.

105. The effect on English vocabulary of training in the modern languages.
106. The effect on speed of reading in English of habits of translation formed in acquiring a modern language.
107. The effect of modern language study on literary appreciation in English.
108. A study of the quality of English in translations for college entrance examinations, with due allowance made for differences in general intelligence either on the basis of an intelligence test or of an average of scholarship marks in high school in all subjects taken.
109. The effect of the study of modern languages on interest in and the attitude toward foreign countries and peoples.
110. A study of examination papers, to determine what objectives the examiners seemed to have in mind when choosing and formulating questions.

#### H. ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

- 111.\*Modern language entrance requirements: (*a*) in liberal arts courses; (*b*) in other courses.
112. Modern language requirements for a bachelor's degree: (*a*) in liberal arts courses; (*b*) in other courses.
113. Mortality in modern language classes in high school and in college, and the causes.
114. Modern language courses in junior high school and their relation to language courses in senior high school and in college.
115. Practices in sectioning classes on a basis of preliminary tests, either of intelligence or of ability in the modern language.



- 116.\*Number of students specializing in modern languages as compared with other subjects, and the number of such students preparing to teach.
- 117.\*Standards and practices in measuring reading knowledge of French and German for candidates for the doctor's degree.
- 118. The number of college students studying no modern language, one, two, three or more languages in high school and in college.
- 119. Motives prompting high school and college students to elect modern languages.
- 120. A study of the failures in modern language courses, and of the regulations governing these in different institutions.
- 121. Reactions of students to the kind and character of instruction given in modern languages.
- 122. The influence of college entrance examinations on modern language curricula and methods.
- 123. A study of examination papers written by candidates for teachers' certificates in modern languages.

## EFFECT ON ACHIEVEMENT OF THE AGE AT WHICH MODERN LANGUAGE STUDY IS BEGUN

The age at which a foreign language can most profitably be begun, and the length of time it should be continued to secure genuinely valuable results, are two fundamental, practical problems on which there are wide differences of opinion even among language teachers. *Modern Studies*, the report of the committee on the position of modern languages in the educational system of Great Britain, points out that there are two widely divergent opinions on this question.<sup>1</sup> One group, who are doubtless greatly influenced by tradition, urge an early beginning, but even in this group there is a variety of opinion as to the exact age, some contending that the study of a modern language should be begun by the direct or natural method as early as six, while others would delay beginning until the age of eight or nine. All of this group agree, however, that foreign language study should begin before the pupil enters the secondary school. The supporters of early beginning lay great stress on the strength of the imitative faculty in early years and maintain that it is considerably impaired even before the age of 12. Those who urge a later age of beginning base their arguments partly on administrative difficulties due to the confusion in secondary schools caused by having two types of pupils—those who have begun French in elementary schools and those beginning in the secondary school. Their main arguments, however, are based, not on the convenience of uniform organization,

<sup>1</sup>*Modern Studies*, p. 110.

but on psychological conceptions relating to the development of the youthful mind. They urge especially the importance of a pupil mastering his own language before attempting the difficult task of learning a foreign language. The English report gives the various arguments on each side of the question. Inasmuch as the conclusions are not based on experimental evidence they need not be repeated here.

Henmon points out that modern languages are unique among school subjects in that they may be begun in elementary school, in junior high school, in high school, or in college.<sup>1</sup> He states also that "the problem of determining the best age of beginning is so complicated by varying aims or objectives, growth in intellectual maturity, individual differences in needs and capacities and the relative value of modern languages in comparison with other subjects which they would replace or by which they would be replaced, that a straightforward, unambiguous answer is extremely difficult to secure by any sort of experiment that can be devised."

Parker has pointed out the prevalence of the opinion that the age from six to fourteen is the best for learning a language and for acquiring motor skill. He shows, "that if we apply to the pedagogical problem concerning the best age at which to learn a foreign vocabulary the conclusions from the experimental investigations of ability to memorize at different ages, it is clear that the later years of the period from six to eighteen are just as favourable to such learning as any other years of the period." He also points out that the reason for the prevalence of the popular opinion is due partly to the tendency to

<sup>1</sup>*Achievement Tests in Modern Foreign Languages*, Chapter X.

notice mature failures and overlook successful mature beginners.<sup>1</sup>

Another reason quite as influential with those who urge an early beginning is the facility with which very young children acquire a foreign language when placed in an environment in which the language is spoken. The same condition is found where children are brought up with a foreign nurse. These cases, however, have very little in common with that of the small child in school who is brought into contact with the foreign language for four or five periods of twenty minutes to half an hour weekly and who speaks and hears his own language the rest of the time.<sup>2</sup>

Let us consider now what experimental evidence, if any, is furnished by the results of the tests.

(I) COMPARISON OF ACHIEVEMENT SCORES DEPENDING ON THE GRADE IN WHICH THE LANGUAGE WAS BEGUN AND THE AGE AT WHICH THE TESTS WERE GIVEN.

Preliminary observations on this subject have been made by Dr. Li<sup>3</sup> in a study of the results of the committees' achievement tests in the various grades. The class-records obtained in the process of standardizing these tests do not permit of the accurate determination of the age at which the language was begun; hence the question of age with the data available had to be attacked indirectly. While there is a tremendous overlapping in chronological age, it may be assumed that the average age of any given grade is greater than that of the preced-

<sup>1</sup>*Methods of Teaching in High Schools*, Ginn & Co., 1920, Chapter XIII.

<sup>2</sup>For further discussion of the psychological aspect of the problem see *Learning Processes in the Bibliography*.

<sup>3</sup>Li, Chen Nan, *Factors Conditioning Achievement in Modern Foreign Languages*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Yale University, 1927.



ing grade and less than that of the following grade. Another assumption that may be made is that, when the number of semesters or years is equal, two groups varying in the age at which the tests were administered must necessarily vary in the age at which the language was begun. The only exception to this assumption would be those cases in which there had been periods of disuse of varying duration. The number of cases in which the study of a foreign language is interrupted and later resumed is small except in the case of college groups. Tables 5 and 6 give the median scores for semester groups in American high schools according to the grade in which the language was begun. The data for composition were lacking at the time these tables were constructed. The figures in parenthesis indicate the number of cases.

TABLE 5

MEDIAN SCORES OF SEMESTER GROUPS DIVIDED ACCORDING TO THE GRADE IN WHICH THE MODERN LANGUAGE WAS BEGUN

HIGH SCHOOL FRENCH						
Semester	I			II		
	9	10	11	9	10	11
Vocab.....	17.0(198)	18.2(171)	17.7(135)	21.2(76)	23.8(64)	25.0(48)
Gram.....	5.5(200)	8.2(174)	7.8(132)	7.4(73)	13.0(66)	14.0(49)
Read.....	5.3(206)	6.6(162)	6.8(124)	7.5(83)	10.2(66)	11.0(44)
Semester	III			IV		
	9	10	11	9	10	11
Vocab.....	26.3(69)	30.8(101)	30.7(91)	28.5(48)	34.8(92)	....
Gram.....	17.8(66)	25.4(102)	19.3(91)	21.5(46)	26.4(93)	....
Read.....	12.4(68)	15.0(113)	14.4(87)	14.1(45)	15.5(89)	....
Semester	V			VI		
	9	10		7	8	9
Vocab.....	35.5(88)	43.8(150)	....	33.4(42)	37.3(54)	28.8(67)
Gram.....	25.5(89)	32.0(148)	....	21.3(48)	30.3(54)	28.8(67)
Read.....	16.8(90)	19.2(140)	....	13.9(41)	16.8(55)	17.7(66)

TABLE 6

MEDIAN SCORES OF SEMESTER GROUPS DIVIDED ACCORDING TO THE GRADE IN WHICH THE LANGUAGE WAS BEGUN

HIGH SCHOOL GERMAN					
Semester	II		III		
	10	11	9	10	11
Vocab.....	25.5(120)	27.0(112)	24.2(63)	36.0(70)	36.2(51)
Gram.....	18.3(122)	16.6(117)	16.8(64)	24.8(69)	24.2(61)
Read.....	11.4(124)	9.4(114)	12.3(65)	17.9(83)	18.3(48)
Comp.....	4.8(120)	4.6(112)	4.7(68)	5.2(84)	4.9(40)
Semester	IV			V	
	9	10	11	9	10
Vocab.....	37.3(48)	37.7(118)	37.2(113)	36.1(77)	41.8(72)
Gram.....	22.4(48)	23.3(117)	23.8(122)	24.3(71)	26.3(76)
Read.....	15.5(48)	16.3(111)	16.3(116)	12.1(76)	20.4(77)
Comp.....	5.6(45)	4.7(99)	4.7(126)	5.0(45)	6.0(78)
Semester		VI			
		9	10		
Vocab.....		49.5(54)	49.1(150)		
Gram.....		28.2(54)	28.3(150)		
Read.....		22.7(44)	23.3(149)		
Comp.....		5.5(56)	6.5(151)		

In these two tables there is evident a recognizable tendency for pupils beginning in the tenth and eleventh grades to secure higher median scores than those beginning in the eighth or ninth grades. There are, however, too many unanalysable variables to justify a conclusion in favour of a late beginning of modern language study. Senior high school pupils are a more highly selected group than junior high school pupils. Many pupils beginning in the tenth and eleventh grades have already studied Latin and any transfer effects from it or from any other high school subjects might conceivably operate to produce higher scores. On the other hand, the younger pupils have higher intelligence quotients which complicates the problem. The tables prepared by Li showing

the median scores of different semester groups divided according to the age at which the tests were given, but which are not reproduced here, show negligible differences for the ages of fourteen, fifteen, sixteen and seventeen. Variation in objectives at different grade levels, variation in content, method and pace, variation in the quality of instruction at different levels are further complications. No attempt has been made in these preliminary tabulations therefore to determine the reliability of the median scores or to determine the reliability and significance of the obtained differences.

Only a carefully controlled experiment can throw real light on this problem. Such a study was undertaken by Mr. de Sauzé to determine comparative achievements in French of pupils beginning in the seventh, the ninth and the eleventh grades. The French tests, form B, were given to 750 pupils in nine Cleveland high schools at the end of the first semester. The probable learning rate index which is the equivalent of an intelligence quotient was available for all but a few of the pupils. In the Cleveland schools properly qualified pupils may begin French in the second semester of the seventh grade. Of the 273 pupils beginning in the seventh grade 196 had intelligence quotients above 100, while 61 were below 100, with intelligence quotients lacking for 16. The median intelligence quotient of 112 for the whole group indicates that they were a highly selected group, provided the intelligence quotients are strictly comparable.

The intelligence quotient or the probable learning rate index for the seventh grade is determined by the Cleveland classification test, while the quotients for the other pupils are all based on the Terman group test of mental ability.

The median intelligence quotients and chronological ages of the four groups were as follows:

Grade.....	7	9	10	11
Median Chron. Age.....	13.3	15	15.8	16.6
Median Int. Quot.....	112	103	103	106
No. of Cases.....	267	226	82	174

The significant facts from this administration appear in table 7, which gives the distribution of scores, the means and medians, the standard deviations, the probable error of the means, the probable error of the difference and the critical ratios.

It is very evident that those who begin in the seventh grade make significantly lower scores in all the abilities tested, though the difference is slight in reading ability, in spite of the fact that they are a more highly selected group. For example, in vocabulary the mean score of the seventh grade pupils is 11.7, while for the ninth grade pupils it is 15.9, a difference of 4.2 score points. That this difference is a significant one is indicated by the critical ratio between the probable error of the difference and the obtained difference. It is usually held that a difference to be regarded as genuinely significant should be four times its probable error. Since the probable error of the difference is .39, and the obtained difference 4.2, the obtained difference is ten times the probable error. Similar differences are shown for grammar and composition. The differences between the ninth, tenth and eleventh grades are not so clear, due no doubt to the fact that the classes were for the most part mixed, that is, made up of students beginning in the ninth, tenth or eleventh grades. In order to eliminate this factor the median scores of three groups were taken for each of the ninth and eleventh grade levels, where all the members of the classes had begun in the ninth or



TABLE 7  
SHOWING DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES ACCORDING TO THE GRADE IN WHICH THE STUDY OF FRENCH WAS BEGUN

Vocabulary					Grammar					Silent Reading					Composition				
Score	VII	IX	X	XI	Score	VII	IX	X	XI	Score	VII	IX	X	XI	Score	VII	IX	X	XI
37-39					25-26					13					14				
34-36		1			23-24					12					13				
31-33	2	1	1	2	21-22		1			11				1	12				
28-30	3	5		4	19-20					10					11				
25-27	6	15	2	10	17-18		1			9				1	10			1	
22-24	15	26	3	13	15-16		2	1		8				2	9			1	
17-21	23	42	9	17	13-14		3	1		7				3	8			3	
16-18	26	16	4	15	11-12		11	2		6				2	7			6	
13-15	19	31	14	25	9-10		1	10		5				15	6			27	
10-12	22	34	18	39	7-8		14	24		4				15	5			11	
7-9	89	38	25	42	5-6		20	23		3				19	4			28	
4-6	62	13	6	5	3-4		102	19		2				26	3			21	
1-3		1		2	1-2		83	3		1				55	2			16	
0		3			0		11			0				89	0			6	
N	267	226	82	174		233	225	83	184		231	225	60	152		211	178	73	123
Median	9.4	15.3	11.7	12.9		3.3	6.5	6.7	7.0		1.4	1.6	1.8	2.6		3.7	4.9	5.6	5.3
Mean	11.7	15.9	12.0	13.2		3.1	6.3	6.4	6.5		1.6	1.6	1.6	2.6		3.4	4.8	4.9	5.1
0	6.4	6.9	5.6	6.5		1.7	3.0	2.5	2.7		2.0	1.8	1.5	2.2		2.0	2.0	2.2	2.0
P.E. Mean	.26	.30	.42	.33		.07	.13	.19	.13		.09	.08	.13	.11		.09	.10	.17	.11
P.E. Diff.	.39	.51	.53			.15	.21	.23			.12	.15	.17			.13	.19	.20	
C.R.	10.8	7.6	2.3			21.0	.5	.4			0	0	5.9			10.8	.5	1.0	

eleventh grades. The median scores for these groups are as follows:

	Vocabulary	Grammar	Silent Reading	Composition
Grade 11...	13.4(108)	6.2(107)	2.6(71)	6.3(83)
Grade 9...	17.7(79)	7.6(79)	1.6(75)	5.8(62)

In two of the abilities tested the eleventh grade beginners are superior in achievement, while in two the ninth grade beginners are superior. The differences in class medians within each group, which are not reported in detail, outweigh, however, the differences between the groups. The only significant differences, then, are those between the seventh and later grades. Even these are difficult to interpret, though they point to the desirability of a later beginning of modern language study. It is unfortunate that the tests could not be given, as originally planned, after a year of work rather than after a semester. There is a relatively large number of zero scores showing that the tests were better adapted to measuring differences at the year level. Better still would be the testing at regular intervals of a semester over a period of years. The pace set for seventh grades is slower than for the upper grades.

## (2) COMPARISON OF ACHIEVEMENT SCORES FOR ELEMENTARY CLASSES IN HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

Data have been obtained on this subject from American and Canadian schools and colleges. It has long been a practice in the United States, in the evaluation of high school credits in modern languages for admission to college, to consider two years in high school as the equivalent of one year in college. Some institutions even make this ratio three to one. The validity of this practice has frequently been challenged by the schools. While the facts concerning individual variations have shown

that no measure of achievement on the basis of time spent in study can be valid for the individual student, still a comparison of high school and college norms has a bearing on the soundness of the general principle and furnishes a basis for a comparison of results obtained at different ages.

Tables 8 to 10 give the norms for high school and college classes in such a way as to show correspondences or differences in the ratio of two to one. The one semester norm for the colleges is placed under the two semester high school norm and the two semester college norm under the four semester high school norm.

TABLE 8

## FRENCH

Semesters	1	2	3	4
Vocabulary....High School.....	16	22	27	32
College.....		24		31
Grammar.....High School.....	5	12	19	24
College.....		12		19
Silent Reading..High School.....	6	9	12	15
College.....		12		16
Composition...High School.....	5.8	6.2	7.3	7.6
College.....		7.5		7.9

TABLE 9

## GERMAN

Semesters	1	2	3	4
Vocabulary....High School.....	23	25	30	42
College.....		26		37
Grammar.....High School.....	14	17	22	23
College.....		20		23
Silent Reading..High School.....	8	12	13	17
College.....		16		19
Composition...High School.....	4	4.6	5	5.2
College.....		5.7		6.6

TABLE 10

SPANISH				
Semesters	1	2	3	4
Vocabulary....High School.....	23	28	37	44
College.....		24		41
Grammar....High School.....	10	13	16	18
College.....		14		18
Silent Reading..High School.....	5	9	15	17
College.....		12		18

The norms in these cases are based on a wide enough sampling of the high school and college population to be considered reliable. These figures prove conclusively the validity of the ratio of two to one in the evaluation of high school credits.

A special investigation of this problem was undertaken for the American committee by Professor T. C. Newby of the San José State Teachers' College of California in fourteen representative colleges and universities of the Pacific Coast. For the purpose of comparing achievements of high school and university students he made use of the Iowa placement examinations in French and Spanish. The French tests were administered to 1000 students and the Spanish tests to 1500. The results of this experiment corroborate the conclusions based on a comparison of the high school and college norms for the committee's French, German, and Spanish tests. One year in college was found to be the equivalent of more than two years in high school, but less than three.

Similar results were obtained in Canada from a study of college and high school results. The tests used were the committee's French tests in vocabulary, grammar and silent reading. Unfortunately results for the free composition were not available at the time this experi-



ment was carried out. Table II contains the results for the three tests used.

TABLE 11

	Period	Medians		
		Vocabulary	Grammar	Silent Reading
University.....	4 months	25	13	8
University.....	6 "	28	23	9
High School A....	5 "	16	7	5
" " B....	6 "	19	6	1.5
" " C....	1 year	15.5	5	4
" " B....	1 year, 6 months	28	20	9
" " D....	2 years	26	20.5	9
" " A....	2 years	25	20.5	10
" " E....	2 years	28.5	24	14
" " C....	2 years	21	10	8

The university medians are for beginning classes in a Canadian university. The medians for the schools are from five high schools in the same province. Neither of the schools tested at five and six months attained the medians of the university for 4 months. School B at one year six months equalled the university six month medians. In the case of the other schools the university six month medians were not reached until after two full years, and in one case were not reached even at the end of two years. It is evident that in this province certain representative schools are taking from two and a half to three times as long as the university to complete the same work.

If we consider the comparison of high school and college norms made on the committee's tests in the United States, the comparison made on the Pacific Coast by means of the Iowa Placement examinations, and the comparison of first year French classes in college and high school in Canada we are forced to the conclusion that, under present conditions, universities attain in one year the level of achievement attained by high schools in two

years. Unfortunately, although the results of the tests have acquainted us with this fact they have not given us the reasons for it. This increased achievement in relation to the time spent may be due to any of the following causes: (1) more efficient teaching methods, (2) smaller classes, (3) higher intellectual level due to the progressive elimination of slower pupils, (4) increased maturity of the classes.

In Canada, at least, statistics show that classes in college and university are at least as large as high school classes, if not larger. There is no doubt that a progressive elimination of the slower pupils is taking place year by year. Carefully planned experiments are needed to eliminate the uncontrolled factors before a final answer can be given to this problem.

(3) COMPARISON OF ACHIEVEMENT SCORES IN ENGLISH SCHOOLS OF PUPILS BEGINNING FRENCH IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AND THOSE BEGINNING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.

The results obtained from the administration of tests in the secondary schools of England (vol. II, p. 711) were classified in three groups: A, those who began French in the secondary school; B, those who had completed one or two years of French before entering secondary school; C, those who had completed three or more years of French before entering secondary school. The figures of table 19, vol. II, are repeated below in table 12.

TABLE 12

## VOCABULARY

	$\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$ or more
A....	15(273)	22(1083)	30(1266)	39(1159)	50(693)	57(317)	63(155)
B....	23(72)	26(143)	33(201)	46(142)	49(95)	55(57)	63(15)
C....	37(44)	36(108)	42(158)	48(78)	51(49)	63(15)	....

## GRAMMAR

A....	5(276)	8(1095)	16(1200)	23(1175)	32(712)	35(311)	39(158)
B....	8(76)	13(139)	21(180)	28(143)	33(90)	37(57)	42(15)
C....	20(40)	23(112)	28(137)	31(80)	32(52)	36(10)	...

## SILENT READING

A....	2(260)	4(960)	8(1130)	12(1115)	15(682)	17(318)	18(146)
B....	2(63)	5(131)	10(195)	14(126)	14(88)	18(54)	18(14)
C....	10(39)	11(102)	13(124)	14(67)	17(48)	18(14)	....

## FREE COMPOSITION

A....	6(248)	8(1040)	9(1217)	10(1133)	12(675)	13(294)	14(138)
B....	8(77)	9(143)	10(214)	10(137)	12(86)	14(56)	14(15)
C....	9(42)	10(111)	11(143)	11(71)	13(50)	14(13)	....

An examination of the norms at the half year level shows that groups B and C had a lead in score points as follows:

	Vocabulary	Grammar	Silent Reading	Free Composition
B...	8	3	0	2
C...	22	15	8	3

If we examine the norms at the four and a half year level we see that the lead in score points held by groups B and C has in almost every case vanished or has been reduced to such an extent as to be negligible. In other words, the two groups of pupils beginning French in the elementary school have failed to hold the advantage obtained by from two to four years' instruction and have been rapidly overtaken by the group beginning in the secondary school.

The facts contained in table 12 are shown more graphically in figures 1 to 4. The growth curves in these figures show clearly the enormous lead of groups B and C over group A in all the abilities at the half year period. These figures also show a very marked tendency in the lines of growth to converge. There is nothing extraordinary about this convergence. Since the objectives

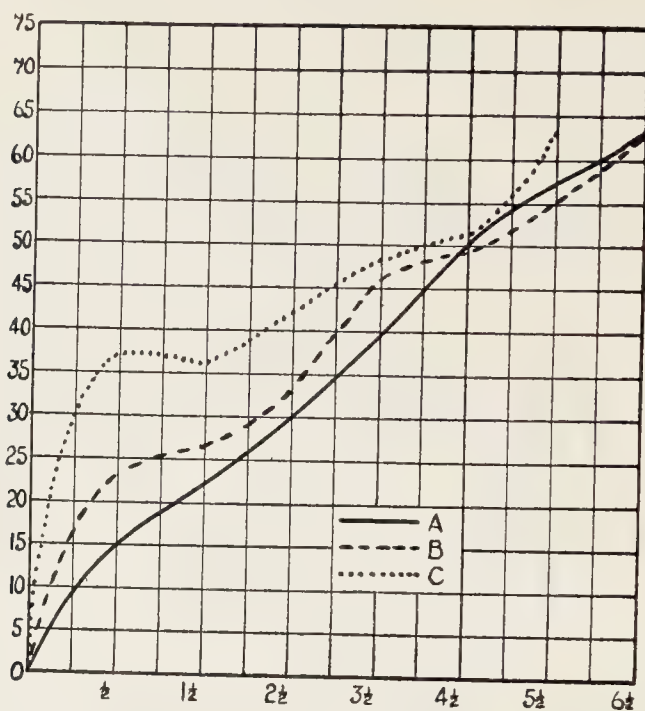


FIG. 1.—GROWTH CURVE IN FRENCH VOCABULARY

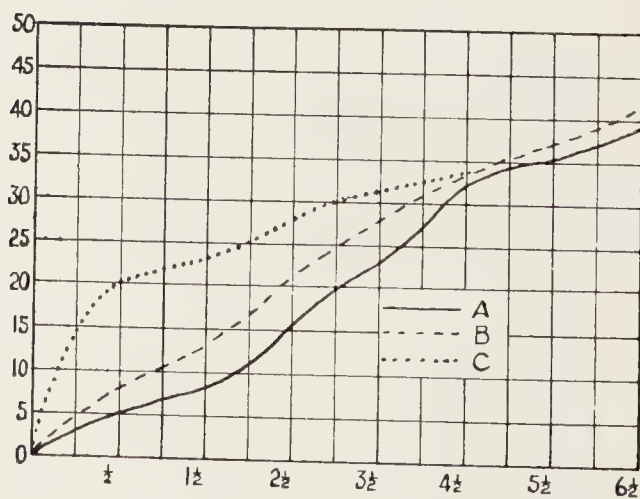


FIG. 2.—GROWTH CURVE IN FRENCH GRAMMAR



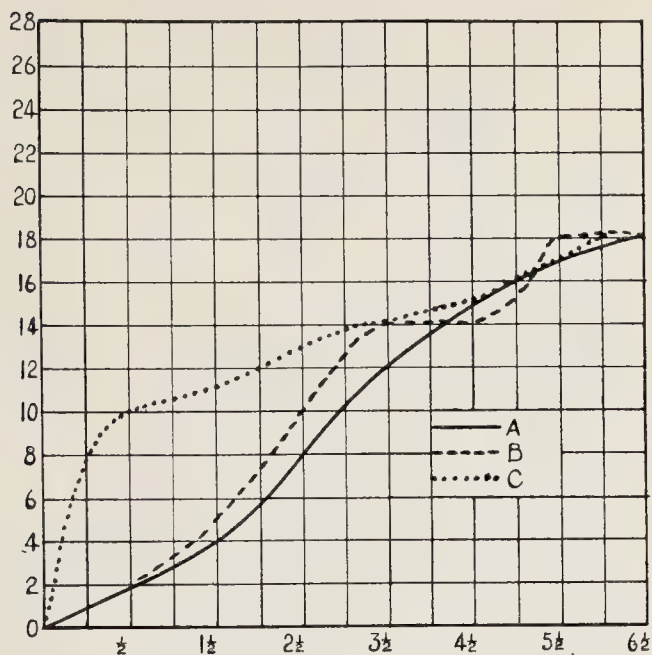


FIG. 3.—GROWTH CURVE IN FRENCH READING

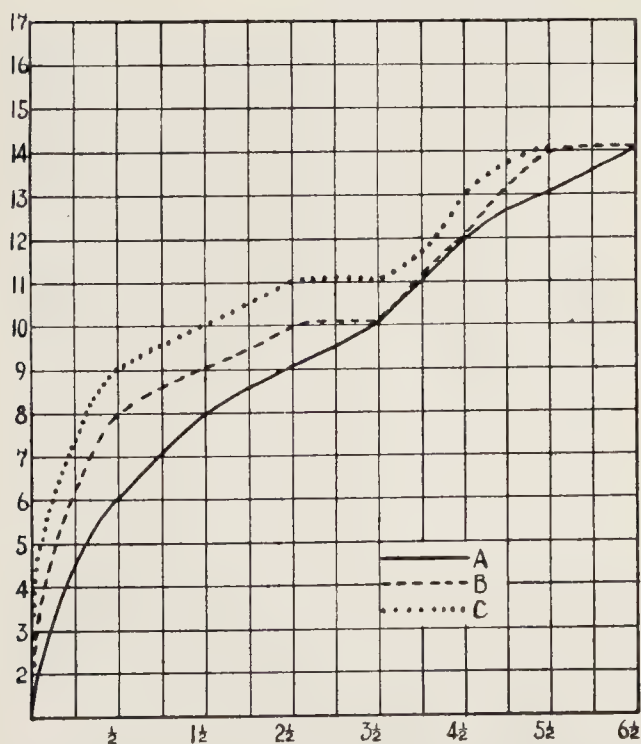


FIG. 4.—GROWTH CURVE IN FRENCH COMPOSITION

for these three groups are the same, the curves are bound to converge. What is astonishing is that group A should so rapidly overtake groups B and C, as is shown by the fact that the curves run together at about the  $4\frac{1}{2}$  year level.

As is elsewhere pointed out (vol. II, p. 712), pupils from the three groups, A, B, and C, are usually found in the same classes. No attempt has been made apparently to classify pupils entering secondary school on the basis of achievement in French. As a result, first year classes in secondary schools frequently consist of pupils beginning French, grouped with others who have had from one to five years of preparatory French. This fact has probably tended to raise slightly the norms of group A, and in the same degree to depress the norms of groups B and C.

In order that a clearer view of the situation might be obtained, norms were calculated for nine schools in which practically all the pupils entered with preparatory school French. This group, known as group D, had an average of two and a half years of preparatory school French. Norms were also obtained for group E, consisting of forty-four schools whose pupils entered without any preparation in French. The norms for these groups are given in table 13.

TABLE 13

## VOCABULARY

Years	$\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$
D . . .	32(69)	33(126)	38(191)	49(96)	51(87)	56(27)
E . . .	15(76)	21(747)	31(921)	39(803)	52(529)	59(219)

## GRAMMAR

D . . .	19(69)	22(130)	24(192)	31(98)	34(84)	38(29)
E . . .	5(80)	8(789)	11(472)	16(418)	33(521)	36(218)

## SILENT READING

D....	9(67)	11(130)	12(182)	15(95)	17(79)	18(27)
E....	1(76)	4(816)	8(816)	12(762)	15(505)	17(214)

## FREE COMPOSITION

D....	9(68)	10(135)	10(195)	11(104)	13(86)	14(33)
E....	6(75)	8(794)	9(859)	10(780)	12(505)	14(193)

These results show the same tendencies as those of table 12. Group E, consisting of pupils who begin French, rapidly overtakes group D, which had an advantage of two and a half years of preparatory French. Figures 5 to 8, based on the results contained in table 13, show clearly the convergence of the growth curves for the various abilities. *Modern Studies*, the report of the English committee, states that teachers of modern languages who are in favour of a late beginning claim that as a matter of practical experience, children who begin in the secondary schools are able in a short time to overtake their companions who started two or three years before them.<sup>1</sup> While the tests give experimental evidence to support this opinion they do not explain it. The more rapid progress of the groups beginning in the secondary school may be due to one or more of several causes. It may be due to the higher intellectual level of the classes caused by a process of natural selection or to the greater maturity of the pupils, or again it may be a mere question of pace. The man who has an hour to catch a train does not move as rapidly as the man who has but five minutes. The fact that the convergence in every case occurs at about the time at which the pupils take the first examination supports the belief that it is largely a matter of pace. We are forced then to the conclusion that the objective is not a perfect knowledge

<sup>1</sup>*Modern Studies*, p. 114.

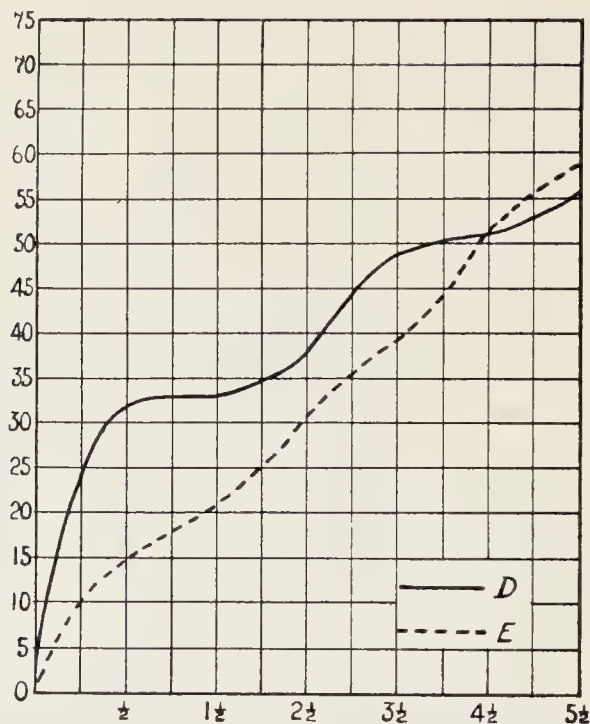


FIG. 5.—GROWTH CURVE IN FRENCH VOCABULARY

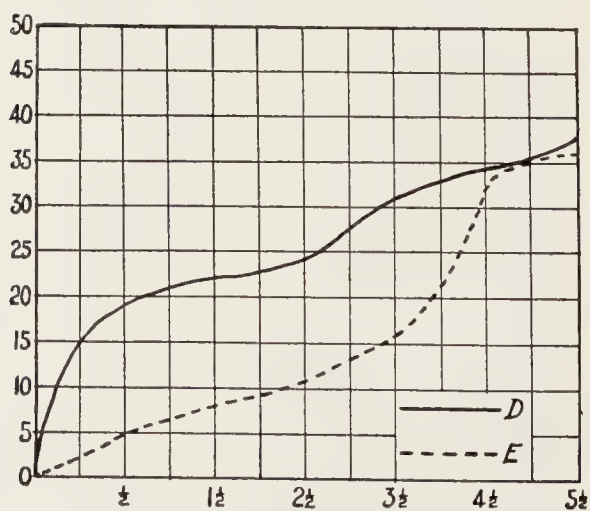


FIG. 6.—GROWTH CURVE IN FRENCH GRAMMAR



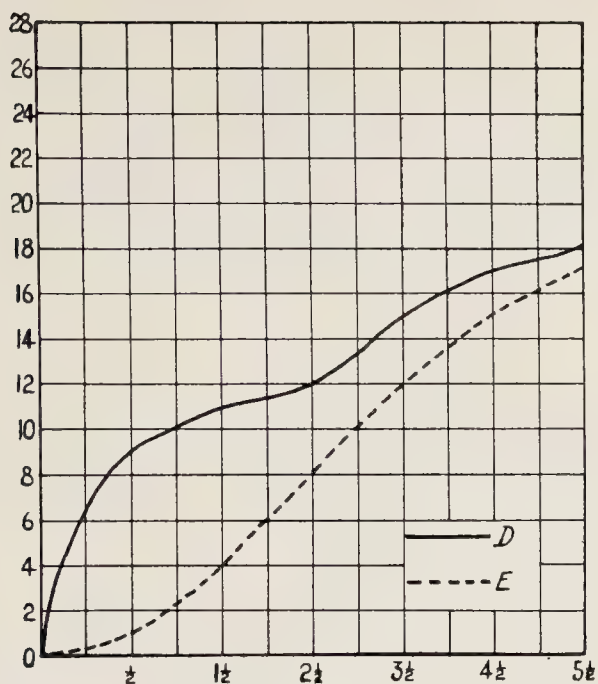


FIG. 7.—GROWTH CURVE IN FRENCH READING

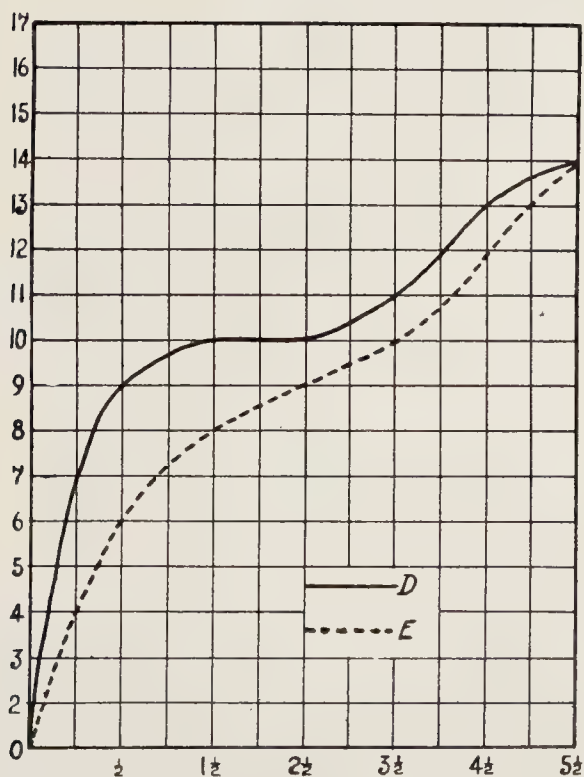


FIG. 8.—GROWTH CURVE IN FRENCH COMPOSITION

of French but rather a knowledge of enough French to pass an examination. However this may be, it is clear that under present conditions at least, pupils beginning French in preparatory schools are very rapidly overtaken by those beginning in secondary schools, so that at the four or five year level they are approximately equal.

(4) COMPARISON OF ACHIEVEMENT SCORES IN CANADIAN PRIVATE SCHOOLS OF PUPILS BEGINNING FRENCH IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AND THOSE BEGINNING IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.

A limited amount of data is available from tests administered in the private schools of Canada. Unfortunately the number of cases at the different levels is too small to furnish reliable norms. Table 14 contains the medians by years for five schools in vocabulary, grammar, and comprehension. Figures for free composition are not available.

TABLE 14

COMPARATIVE ACHIEVEMENT BY YEARS IN FIVE SCHOOLS OF TWO GROUPS

A—Pupils beginning French in Preparatory School.

B—Pupils beginning French in High School.

School	Year	Vocabulary		Grammar		Silent Reading		No. of Cases	
		A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
I.....	1½	25.2	23.1	13.5	11.5	10.2	9	26	26
	2½	36	30	20.1	16	12.1	10.5	21	27
	3½	43.5	42	29	30	15	14.8	17	20
	4½	51	46	39	39	21	20	6	7
II.....	1½	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	2½	35	32	21.5	16.5	11.6	9.2	29	23
	3½	44	39	29	25	18	17	13	6
	4½	54	44	38.5	34	20.3	15	9	1

TABLE 14—Cont.

III....	1½	17.5	12.1	7.5	6	4	4	5	4
	2½	31.8	25	16.9	14.2	11.1	11.5	12	24
	3½	38	36.5	24	25.2	14.1	14.8	19	21
	4½	57	47.1	40	34	23	19.5	5	6
IV....	1½	25	23.5	13.5	8.8	9.5	7	25	37
	2½	30.9	27.9	19	14	12.6	10.3	32	32
	3½	39.7	34.3	26	19.6	16	15.5	24	43
	4½	45	50	32	36	20	21.9	7	15
V.....	1½	22.4	20	8.3	6.5	5.4	4.3	20	17
	2½	23	22.2	9.5	9.8	7.6	8.2	16	18
	3½	33	32.5	12.5	16.3	13.3	12.3	21	22
	4½	42	43	25.5	15	17	15	9	6

Because of the small number of cases we must regard the results of table 14 as tendencies rather than proved facts, but it is interesting to observe the same tendencies as were indicated in the results from English schools. Disregarding certain irregularities due to small numbers, it is plain that pupils beginning French in the secondary school tend to overtake rapidly pupils who began two or three years before them.

Norms were secured also for the senior class in the preparatory department and are given below, together with their equivalents in high school norms. The figures in parentheses indicate the number of cases upon which the norms were based.

Vocabulary.....	21(144), or just below 2 year high school
Grammar.....	5(124), or norm for ½ year high school
Silent Reading.....	2(118), or less than norm for ½ year high school
Free Composition.....	6(70), or norm for ½ year high school

The pupils in this senior group vary greatly in the amount of preparatory French, but average about 2½ years. It is plain, therefore, that, except in vocabulary, their progress has been considerably slower than that of pupils beginning in high school.

A few private schools at the cost of considerable labor furnished figures which show comparative achievement of groups A and B in the Ontario matriculation examinations. The figures go back over a number of years and include 600 cases in group A and 500 in group B. The results are contained in table 15. See Vol. II, pp. 381 and 622.

TABLE 15

## MIDDLE SCHOOL

Year	Group	Per cent. writing	Per cent. of failures
3	A	36	12
3	B	13	20
4	A	55	20
4	B	83	14

## UPPER SCHOOL

4	A	50	16
4	B	19	37
5	A	50	30
5	B	81	23

In general it appears that early beginners have an opportunity to matriculate one year earlier than late beginners. About 25 per cent. of the early beginners avail themselves of this opportunity. That this 25 per cent. contains the brightest pupils of group A is shown by the fact that the remainder of the group after another year's study of French have 20 per cent. of failures as against 12 per cent. for the 25 per cent.,—the group that took their examination in the third year.

On the whole, the weight of experimental evidence from the private schools seems to favour a late rather than an early beginning. The sole point in favour of an early beginning is the evidence that 25 per cent. of the brightest pupils may, by beginning French in the preparatory school, matriculate in French one year earlier.



## (5) ACHIEVEMENT SCORES IN FRENCH OF THE ENGLISH SCHOOLS OF THE PROVINCE OF QUEBEC

In the English schools of the province of Quebec the study of French is begun in grades III or IV. Therefore at the end of grade VII, or the last year of elementary French, pupils have had four or five years of French.

The norms for grade VII based on approximately 250 cases are as follows:

Vocabulary.....	27
Grammar.....	7
Silent Reading.....	4.5
Free Composition....	7

Comparing these figures with the high school norms for the rest of Canada, it is seen that the Quebec pupil enters high school with an achievement equal, in vocabulary, to third year high school, in grammar and silent reading, to about first year high school, and in free composition to third year high school. In other words, the four or five years of elementary school French are equivalent to from one to three years of high school training according to the standards of the rest of Canada. As will be seen (vol. II, p. 747), this advantage is not maintained, except in free composition. Gradually the pupils beginning at the high school age overtake the early beginners, except in silent reading, where the advantage is not only maintained but slightly increased.

Convincing as these figures may seem, an analysis of the situation will show that the comparison is more or less futile. It is true that we have made a comparison between two distinct groups, one beginning in elementary school, and another in high school. We have also shown that the second group rapidly overtakes the first group. In considering the validity of our conclusions, however, it must be pointed out that the method and objectives

in the case of the two groups are so different that it is doubtful if we are justified in basing conclusions on this comparison. The objectives in the province of Quebec are speaking and hearing, and, as is pointed out (vol. II, p. 837) are only measured indirectly by the written tests. In the rest of Canada, on the contrary, the objectives are reading and writing. The results are of some value, however, in that they corroborate the conclusions based on the test results from the English schools and from Canadian private schools. In both cases we find a very marked tendency in the late beginners to overtake those who began a year or two before them.

What conclusions can be drawn from the experimental evidence furnished by the tests? It is true that a clean-cut, unequivocal statement as to the optimum age for beginning a foreign language cannot yet be given. Certain facts have been demonstrated, however, and certain tendencies clearly indicated:

(1) Pupils beginning in the seventh grade in American schools make significantly lower scores than those beginning in grades 9, 10 and 11.

(2) A comparison of high school and college norms for beginning classes in the United States and Canada shows that, under present conditions, colleges are attaining in one year the level of achievement reached by high schools only at the end of two years.

(3) There is a marked tendency in the schools of England and in Canadian private schools for those pupils beginning a foreign language in the secondary school to overtake rapidly pupils who began two or three years earlier.

(4) A comparison of achievement scores from the English schools of the province of Quebec with the norms for the rest of Canada indicates the same tendency as is

found in the schools of England and in Canadian private schools.

While undoubtedly further carefully planned experiments are necessary in order to give a decisive answer to the important question of optimum age of beginning a foreign language it is felt that the facts given above point quite decisively to the desirability of a later beginning. The objective fact stated by Buswell, "that in a period of two years elementary pupils do not attain that degree of maturity in reading which is attained during a like period in approximately equal measure by high school and by college students,"<sup>1</sup> would seem to place the proper age of beginning not earlier than the first year of high school.

<sup>1</sup>*A Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Foreign Languages*, p. 93.

## WOMEN STUDENTS IN MODERN LANGUAGES

The problem of the numerical balance of men and women in certain branches of study dates from the time when women began to frequent the universities of this continent. Discussing the subject nearly 20 years ago, Miss Helen Olin writes, "With the increase in the number of women in the colleges of liberal arts of co-educational institutions, certain courses have become popular with the women, so that they greatly outnumber the men. As soon as this situation obtains there is a tendency for the men not to elect these courses, even if otherwise they are attractive to them. Similarly, there are certain courses which are naturally taken by a large number of men, perhaps with reference to their future career, and there is a tendency for women not to elect these courses because of the overwhelming predominance of men. That this separation is peculiar to co-education is shown by the fact that in men's colleges languages and literature are popular subjects, while in women's colleges courses are successfully given in political economy and similar subjects."<sup>1</sup>

With a view to securing definite data on this question, figures have been collected from registrars and heads of departments bearing on the proportion of men to women enrolled in modern language courses. The tabulation of these figures in such a way as to show the existence of a definite tendency in either direction proved impracticable for two reasons; first, the difference in systems of classifica-

<sup>1</sup>*The Women of a State University.* Olin, Helen R., C. P. Putnam's Sons, 1909, p. 112.



ation between one university and another, and second, the varying ratio of women to men in the total registration from year to year, and from university to university. All that can be stated is, that in modern languages after the second year, women regularly outnumber the men in a ratio that is rarely less, and frequently greater, than five to one; and that this disproportion has existed for at least 15 years, and was foreshadowed from the very first entrance of women to the university. In one populous institution the 4th year honours courses for 1926 showed the following proportion of men to women: modern history, 1 to 3, English and history, 1 to 2, moderns, 1 to 15. On the other hand, there were no women seeking honours in philosophy and political science. Counting students in honour moderns for all four student years, the ratio becomes 1 to 11 for 1926; it had been 1 to 10½ in 1911. Other universities show a similar preponderance in the registration of women in modern studies; one reports 4 to 25 in 1926, though five years earlier the figures had been 3 to 4. In pass courses the female domination is less marked. Enrolment figures for pass French in the second and fourth years of one arts course (in a western university where women are only about 33 per cent. of the undergraduate body) give returns as follows: second year, 54 men to 46 women, and fourth year 36 to 67.

In another case, where the total registration of men to women is about as 2 to 1, the second year pass French shows 8 to 5 and fourth year 13 to 17. In a large provincial university where men and women were in 1925 on an exact numerical equality, fourth year pass French gives a ratio of 1 to 4.

Examination of the records of the University of Toronto throws some light on the studies elected by the pioneers

of women's higher education. In the session of 1880-81 there were no women. Figures for total enrolment in arts are not given, but comparison with registration in classics shows that French was by no means neglected. The numbers are, by years:

## UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO

## PASS LISTS, 1881.

Years	Classics	French
I	62	35
II	62	48
III	22	6
IV	25	4

In the session 1888-89 a change has come over the academic scene, and the names of women appear in all years. It is notable, however, that they are for the most part in honours courses; in fact no woman took a pass degree in this year. The figures are self-explanatory. The registration in English probably gives a fairly close approximation to the total enrolment.

*Table.* University of Toronto. Honours and pass students credited with certain subjects, classified by sexes, June 1889.

Year	French				German			
	Honours		Pass		Honours		Pass	
	M	W	M	W	M	W	M	W
I	17	20	51	12	19	22	61	9
II	12	11	44	2	11	11	46	2
III	7	9	5	1	7	9	10	—
IV	6	7	1	—	6	7	—	—

Classics					English			
I	20	0	39	0	25	20	97	9
II	17	0	71	13 <sup>1</sup>	25	12	—	— <sup>2</sup>
III	12	3	19	1	11	8	28	1
IV	11	1	16	—	5	7	20	—

Thus in the second year of full recognition, women already outnumber the men in honour moderns and are nearly 50% in honour English.

It appears, then, that in the absence of definite pressure, such as pre-medical requirements filling German classes in one faculty of arts, the language classes in co-educational institutions appeal more to women than to men.

As to the causes of this state of affairs, one can but speculate. There may be something in the fact that the expansion of modern studies happened about the same time as the arrival of university women; or again the women may have seized on language and literature as branches of learning in which their early experiments would meet with less masculine competition, their advent thus causing rather than coinciding with the expansion in language study. Or it may be that there are economic reasons; language teaching in the high schools is largely in the hands of women, a fact which would evidently affect university enrolment, but again might equally be a result of it. It is further alleged that when the feminine population of a given university course approaches 50% the men rapidly disappear.

But is it true that "in men's colleges language and literature are popular subjects, while in women's colleges

<sup>1</sup>Latin only, as also many of the men.

<sup>2</sup>No list appeared.

courses are successfully given in political economy and similar subjects"? Data from three women's colleges and two men's colleges in the United States show the following percentages of enrolment in the senior year, by subjects as indicated.

PERCENTAGE REGISTRATION OF THE SENIOR CLASS, IN 3  
MEN'S COLLEGES AND 2 WOMEN'S COLLEGES.

Women's Colleges	Modern Languages	Economics & Politics	Philosophy
A	36%	14%	2%
B	20	5	1
C	15	9	3
Men's Colleges			
D	13	32	2
E	9	25	6

The figures are not, of course, a sufficiently wide sampling of the field to have much statistical value, but the institutions cited are representative in their several degrees, and it is probable that the ratios of enrolment show the general relative popularity of the studies mentioned. So it may be stated that there is a tendency for men to elect economics and allied courses, and for women to enrol in language departments; which tendency gains momentum when either sex finds itself markedly in the minority.

The simple remedy of admitting women on a quota basis, prescribed by the Senate of the University of Oxford, or the still more exclusive regulations of the University of Cambridge, would probably be unfavourably regarded in North America. Miss Olin quotes a corrective suggested by President Van Hise:



“The natural segregation of the sexes in subjects which should be attractive to both is an undoubted educational tendency . . . I believe the wisest procedure is for educational authorities to frankly recognize the tendency by providing in such subjects courses primarily for men and women as fast as the tendency shows that this is desirable, in order to give each sex the best opportunity . . . in the college of liberal arts providing for separate divisions which to a certain extent may be specialized. . . . In subjects such as language, literature, political economy, history, and mathematics, in a large institution there are many divisions. There is no reason whatever why such a course should not provide divisions primarily for the men and others primarily for the women. If the actual opportunities of women will be enlarged by offering courses in political economy for them, perhaps adapted to their special interest, when they otherwise would not pursue this subject because of the number of men, why should not this be done? If the opportunities of men will be enlarged by offering courses in literature for them, when otherwise they would not take such courses because of the large number of women, what valid objection can be urged to the proposal? Why should there not be given a course in ethics for men alone?”

#### ENROLMENT OF BOYS AND GIRLS IN SCHOOLS

In the schools we have exact data from some provinces. Tables 73, 75, 76 of the *Annual Survey of Education in Canada* give enrolment by sexes and grades for each subject in three provinces. Taking the percentage of boys and of girls registered in each language the following results emerge:

APPROXIMATE PERCENTAGE OF BOYS AND GIRLS ENROLLED  
IN EACH GRADE, WHO ARE STUDYING FRENCH. NOVA  
SCOTIA, SASKATCHEWAN, ALBERTA, 1924.

	IX		X		XI		XII	
	% of		% of		% of		% of	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
N.S...	68	71	71	67	81	71	88	77
Sask..	84	79	83	75	63	62	58	61
Alta..	43	48	30	30	26	17	24	33
Alta.								
oral...	17	25	42	40	22	21	16	25

Inspection of these figures shows no tendency towards the monopolization of French classes by girls.

German in Nova Scotia gives about the same degree of equality, 9—8; 6—6; and 14—12 in the three upper grades.

## TYPICAL ERRORS IN FRENCH EXAMINATION PAPERS

From the standpoint of the modern language teacher it is extremely important to know what are the most common errors made by pupils after several years' study of a modern language. To obtain data on this subject two error counts were undertaken, one on the grade XI examination in Manitoba and the other on the middle school examination in Ontario. The papers chosen were the composition papers in French. To make possible a comparison of frequency of errors they have been reduced to percentages of possible occurrence. Thus the total number of times each error might occur in the examination was estimated and this number was multiplied by the total number of papers. If the partitive construction occurs 5 times in the paper and 200 papers are examined there are 1,000 possible errors. If 200 errors are found there is a 20% error in the partitive construction. Great difficulty was experienced at times in classifying the errors in a satisfactory manner, and frequently arbitrary decisions had to be made. It was felt, however, that as long as uniformity was obtained slight differences in method of classification would not affect the value of the results.

It may be pointed out that the full value of these error counts can only be obtained when they can be compared with a syntax frequency list. A 5% error in a construction which occurs on almost every page of any type of literature is much more serious than an 80% error in a construction that occurs only once every two

or three hundred pages. The value of these counts is affected also by the character of the papers checked. These must contain a fair sampling of the ordinary linguistic phenomena if the results are to be considered representative.

### MANITOBA GRADE XI, JUNE, 1925<sup>1</sup>

In the survey of the 1925 French composition paper for grade XI the intention was to take every fourth or fifth paper alphabetically, thus obtaining a random sample of the whole set of papers. Unfortunately, owing to a misunderstanding, the total number of papers available was reduced to 220. However, these papers range in marks from 7 to 87, and there is a great similarity between the percentages calculated on certain groups and those calculated on the whole, so that it can be assumed that these papers give a representative sample of the types of errors found in the whole set. It is unfortunate that the 1925 examination was the only one available as the paper in composition lacked comprehensiveness, and many fundamental linguistic points were entirely ignored. Thus no mention can be made in this report of the frequency of errors on the following points: Irregular plurals of nouns (except *animaux*); irregular feminines of adjectives; nouns used in a general sense; the partitive adjective or pronoun; agreement of the past participle with an object other than the relative pronoun; the use of *ceci*, *cela*, *quelqu'un*; comparison of adjectives (except *aussi—que*); many idioms of frequent use which had been stressed in the prescribed texts;

<sup>1</sup>This error count was undertaken by Miss S. C. Doupe of the Daniel McIntyre Collegiate Institute, Winnipeg. A number of Winnipeg teachers assisted in the work, especially the Misses D. Baker, T. V. Carson, B. M. Clark and S. C. MacKenzie.



such necessary and much abused words as: *beaucoup*, *plusieurs*, *quelques*, *peu*, *trop*, *assez*, *encore*, etc.

In classifying errors the following system was adhered to as closely as possible:

The heading "form" includes only the actual spelling of a word. "Vocabulary" includes:

1. Omission of a word.
2. Use of the English word instead of the French.
3. Use of the wrong French word, such as *papier* for *journal*, *vieux* for *ancien*, *temps* for *fois*, etc.

When a sentence or paragraph was omitted, the principal parts of speech, *i.e.*, noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, and adverb were counted as errors under vocabulary, and each idiom was checked in its own place. In this way the following total percentages were obtained:

Misspelled words:	
Verbs.....	20%
Nouns.....	15%
Adjectives.....	9%
Idioms missed.....	49%

On each paper there was found an average of:

Misspelled words:	
Verbs.....	12
Nouns.....	5.6
Adjectives.....	1.4
Total misspelled words.....	19
Idioms missed.....	11.4
Vocabulary.....	22 words

The high average of errors per paper is due to the fact that many of the weaker students, finding themselves confronted with unfamiliar words, did not attempt the composition and some of the sentences. Others who began fairly well gave up the effort when about half way through the composition.

## PERCENTAGE OF ERRORS

## NOUNS

Form.....	15%
Irregular plurals ( <i>animaux</i> only).....	6%
Gender.....	38%

## ADJECTIVES

Form.....	9%
Position.....	6%
Agreement.....	12%
Comparison ( <i>aussi—que</i> only).....	30%

## ARTICLES

Agreement.....	11%
Definite article with names of countries.....	56%
Contraction of the definite article.....	9%
Indefinite article in predicate.....	76%
Indefinite article after <i>quel</i> .....	39%

## NUMERALS

Form.....	18%
Dates and titles.....	6%
Cardinal for ordinal.....	5%
Ordinal for cardinal.....	11%

## PRONOUNS

*Personal*

Confusion of Direct and Indirect.....	2%
Position in compound tenses.....	30%
With infinitives or participles.....	11%

*Demonstrative*

Agreement.....	21%
<i>Ci</i> and <i>là</i> omitted.....	8%
<i>Ci</i> and <i>là</i> unnecessary.....	13%
<i>Ce + être</i> .....	29%

*Relative*

Confusion of <i>qui</i> and <i>que</i> .....	12%
Use of <i>dont</i> .....	32%
<i>Quoi</i> .....	34%

*Interrogative*

Whose.....	10%
<i>Quoi</i> .....	6%

*Possessive*

Agreement.....: 40%

*Indefinites*

Use of *quelque chose (de)*..... 74%

*Disjunctive*

Confusion with conjunctives..... 20%

*Reflexive*

Form..... 63%

Use..... 12%

VERBS

Form (except *jeter*)..... 20%

*Jeter, appeler*, etc..... 4%

Infinitive (how governed)..... 49%

Use of present indicative..... 4%

“ “ “ “ (with *depuis*)..... 59%

“ “ imperfect..... 8%

“ “ “ (with *depuis*)..... 89%

“ “ past indefinite..... 15%

“ “ future..... 1%

“ “ pluperfect..... 52%

“ “ present participle..... 51%

Auxiliary used with past participle..... 7%

Invariable past participle..... 9%

Past participle with *être* (not reflexive)..... 11%

“ “ “ “ (reflexive)..... 48%

Agreement of past participle with direct object (relative pronoun)..... 42%

*Subjunctive*

Noun clauses (willing, wishing)..... 39%

“ “ (emotion)..... 42%

“ “ (hoping)..... 48%

Adjective clauses (unattained result)..... 72%

“ “ (antecedent with *seul*)..... 51%

ADVERBS

Form..... 37%

Position..... 3%

PREPOSITIONS

Form..... 28%

CONJUNCTIONS

Confusion with prepositions..... 5%

Omission..... 6%

## IDIOMS

<i>faire</i> ( <i>chaud, froid, etc.</i> )	37%
<i>venir de</i> (imperfect)	81%
<i>à la gare</i>	9%
<i>en automne</i>	60%
<i>par mois</i>	51%
<i>chez</i>	20%
<i>il y a</i> (ago)	31%
<i>y avait-il?</i>	56%
<i>en retard</i>	75%
<i>avoir l'intention de</i>	54%
<i>un de mes amis</i>	58%
kindly	78%
<i>as</i> (conjunction)	85%
<i>ne plus</i>	40%
<i>content de</i>	69%
<i>bon pour</i>	79%
<i>tous les</i> (animaux)	46%
<i>tout de suite</i>	5%
<i>à sa rencontre</i>	95%
<i>celui-ci, celui-là</i> (former, latter)	89%
confusion of <i>aller voir, visiter, faire visite à</i>	88%

Many other points, some of which do not appear in the percentage list, are worthy of attention. One candidate was unable to spell the word *ami*. The words *frère* and *mais* are 2% errors, and *sœur* 3%. The name *Edouard* was spelled incorrectly 97% of the time, and the expression *Amérique du nord* was an 83% error. *Samedi*, the only day of the week called for, was a 12½% error, and the adjective *vieil* 16%. *Ma frère* and *mon sœur* were found a number of times, and in the expression *ses deux enfants* the possessive adjective was a 17½% error. Adverbs were very poorly rendered, *très* being incorrect 22% of the time. The use of *pour* in translating such an expression as "He stayed there for two days" was a 98% error. As regards prepositions, *à* before the names of cities was a 23% error, *en* before the names of countries 34%, *en* in dates 16%. The conjunction *car* was not in the vocabulary of any pupil, and the transla-



tion of the English conjunction "as" proved a stumbling block.

The following conclusions were arrived at by the teachers who made the error count:

1. There has been in general a very great lack of exactness in learning, and, we venture to say, in teaching. Accuracy should be insisted on from the beginning in grades VII, VIII, and IX. No matter how little is learned, it should be learned thoroughly and not merely approximately. Pupils should be disabused of the idea that anything that is not English may be French.

2. Verbs need much more attention. This same point stands out very clearly in a series of experiments recently conducted in sight translation. Unknown words were carefully listed day by day, and 60% to 70% of these were found to be verbs. The work of grade XI cannot be done in a satisfactory manner unless the conjugation of the verb is mastered in grade X.

3. The figures as regards vocabulary, spelling, and idioms show the necessity of a minimum vocabulary and idiom list for matriculation. If such a list were prepared, and a knowledge of it required, a great improvement would result.

#### ONTARIO MIDDLE SCHOOL, JUNE, 1925<sup>1</sup>

The French composition paper was chosen as the basis of the error count. This paper consists of twenty sentences and ten short verb phrases to be translated into French, followed by two short pieces of continuous prose based upon the *High School French Reader*. While it is assumed that the paper tests ability in writing

<sup>1</sup>This error count was made by Miss M. V. Bibby of the Toronto Normal School, assisted by Miss Victoria Wright.

French, it also serves as a functional grammar test, the sentences containing a sampling of the linguistic phenomena occurring in that portion of the prescribed grammar assigned for middle school work. For this reason certain rather common grammatical points are missing, such as the use of *depuis* with the present tense, because this use, although occurring in the reader a number of times, does not appear in the part of the grammar studied by middle school pupils.

In order to secure a random sampling of errors from these papers every twentieth paper was taken. The range of marks was the same on this group as for the whole set of papers. The number of papers was further reduced by excluding all papers that fell below 40%. The percentage of errors for these pupils was so high that it was not felt to be significant. The total number of papers examined was 420. This group is representative of the average work of Ontario pupils who have studied French for four years.

A preliminary list of errors was made and used to check twenty-five papers. The list was then reduced to its present form on the basis of the results of the first twenty-five papers. Attention is drawn to the types of errors listed below:

Vocabulary of nouns, verbs, prepositions and adverbs; gender of nouns and adjectives; demonstrative pronouns; idioms; wrong form of verb—*j'envoya*, *on pourraient*; wrong auxiliary; tenses of verbs—failure to use correctly the past indefinite, the past definite, or the imperfect; failure to use correctly the subjunctive after *il faut*, *il importe*, *il est content*; failure in agreement of past participle with *avoir*, with *être*, with reflexive verbs; wrong negation; errors in adverbs and adverbial phrases like *le mieux*, *à meilleur marché*, *en retard*, *auparavant*;

conjunctions and prepositions used for conjunctions; expressions of time of day, dates, age; use of the definite article with the names of countries; errors in accents and use of the cedilla; elisions and contractions; wrong use of prepositions; conjunctive pronouns used for disjunctives and vice versa; reflexive pronouns; *ce* and *est*; failure to use *y* and *en* correctly; errors in the relative pronouns *qui*, *que*, *dont*, and *dans lequel*; failure to translate "people" correctly.

# PERCENTAGE OF ERROR

## NOUNS

Vocabulary.....	11%
Idioms.....	36%
Irregular plurals.....	5%
Gender.....	21%
Spelling.....	2%
Expressions of age.....	17%
Syntax.....	17%

## ADJECTIVES

Vocabulary.....	10%
Idioms.....	43%
Spelling.....	2%
Position.....	2%
Number.....	15%
Gender.....	8%
Interrogatives.....	2%
Possessives.....	3%
Demonstratives.....	21%

## ARTICLES

General noun.....	3%
Name of a country.....	21%
<i>De</i> for <i>de la</i> .....	6%
Indefinite article.....	4%
Gender.....	1%
Partitive.....	5%
With numerals and cardinals.....	4%

## PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Conjunctives for disjunctives.....	8%
Disjunctives for conjunctives.....	19%
<i>Vous</i> for <i>on</i> .....	1%
Direct or indirect.....	1%
Position.....	4%
Person.....	1%
<i>Tu</i> for <i>vous</i> .....	4%
Indirect for direct.....	6%
Reflexives (wrong forms).....	17%
"    (omissions).....	4%
"    (position).....	1%
"    (person).....	5%
Pronoun after <i>que</i> in comparison.....	2%
Redundant.....	10%
<i>Il</i> for <i>ce</i> , and <i>ce</i> for <i>il</i> .....	33%
Failure to use <i>y</i> .....	81%

## DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

Vocabulary.....	37%
Position.....	2%
Spelling.....	1%
<i>Ci</i> and <i>là</i> .....	21%

## RELATIVE PRONOUNS

<i>Qui</i> .....	9%
<i>Que</i> .....	10%
<i>Dont</i> and <i>dans lequel</i> .....	40%

## INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

Total.....	12%
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## POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

Total.....	13%
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## VERBS

Vocabulary.....	14%
Spelling.....	6%
Wrong forms of verb.....	11%
Auxiliary.....	11%
Present tense.....	1%
Imperfect tense.....	17%
Past indefinite.....	16%
Future.....	16%
Past definite.....	6%
Pluperfect.....	14%
Compound conditional.....	15%
Infinitive.....	5%



# ERRORS IN FRENCH EXAMINATION PAPERS 485

Present participle.....	8%
Past participle.....	47%
Subjunctive ( <i>il faut</i> ).....	15%
“ ( <i>il est important</i> ).....	61%
“ ( <i>il est content</i> ).....	51%
Agreement of past participle with <i>être</i> (not reflexive).....	4%
Agreement of past participle with reflexives.....	14%
Agreement of past participle with <i>avoir</i> .....	22%
Agreement not needed.....	2%
Verb idioms.....	28%
Negation wrong.....	19%

## ADVERBS

Vocabulary.....	13%
Spelling.....	2%
Position.....	1%

## PREPOSITIONS

Vocabulary.....	16%
Wrong preposition with verbs.....	42%
Other wrong uses.....	28%

## CONJUNCTIONS

Vocabulary.....	8%
Spelling.....	1%
Prepositions used for conjunctions.....	3%

## UNCLASSIFIED

<i>Trop froid pour</i> .....	77%
<i>De toute sa force</i> .....	52%
“People”.....	3%
Time of day.....	38%
Dates.....	37%
Elisions or contractions.....	13%
Cedilla.....	33%

## UNIVERSITY FIRST YEAR HONOURS

The two preceding error counts represent typical errors of pupils who have studied French for three or four years. To secure further data, an error count was made on material obtained from a university first year honour French class. The basis of the count was the Canadian committee's grammar test. This test consists of 100 items of the completion type, and was administered

to the class shortly after the first of October. The class was made up of pupils who had passed the Ontario upper school French examination. Pupils taking this examination have usually studied French for five years. The class contained pupils from various Ontario high schools and collegiate institutes, and was a normal class as is shown by the fact that the class median on this grammar test was 67, only one point higher than the Ontario fifth year norm for the same test. The percentages of errors are not listed for all the items of the test. Only some of the more significant of the percentages are reported for the sake of comparison with the other two error counts. The percentages indicate the number of pupils in the class who made an error on the items listed.

## PERCENTAGE OF ERROR

## VERBS

Past indefinite ( <i>naître</i> ).....	49%
Past participle ( <i>connaître</i> ).....	20%
Past definite ( <i>conduire</i> ).....	60%
Past participle ( <i>ouvrir</i> ).....	36%
Present indicative ( <i>pouvoir</i> ).....	25%
Future ( <i>venir</i> ).....	20%
Present indicative ( <i>boire</i> ).....	53%
Present indicative ( <i>partir</i> ).....	15%
Future (after <i>quand</i> ).....	18%
Future after <i>si</i> (I do not know whether he will come).....	62%
Subjunctives after	
<i>valoir mieux</i> .....	67%
<i>vouloir</i> .....	47%
<i>empêcher</i> .....	49%
<i>il est possible</i> .....	67%
<i>croire</i> negatively.....	49%
<i>avant que</i> .....	58%
<i>afin que</i> .....	64%
<i>être étonné</i> .....	68%
after negative antecedent.....	68%
Wrong preposition after	
<i>cesser</i> .....	42%
<i>inviter</i> .....	20%

Conditional sentence "If I had had, etc., I would have, etc.".....	44%
Conditional of <i>devoir</i> , "I ought to, etc.".....	76%
Imperfect with <i>depuis</i> .....	73%
<i>faire</i> (it is cold).....	24%
Agreement of past participle with direct object preceding.....	44%
Agreement of past participle with reflexive verb.....	11%
Agreement of past participle with subject.....	13%

#### PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Position of pronoun objects after imperative.....	11%
Use of pronouns in "I will introduce you to him".....	84%
Position of pronoun objects in "I gave them to him".....	18%
<i>He</i> and <i>I</i> will go.....	40%
It was <i>he</i> who, etc.....	22%
Use of <i>y</i> .....	4%

#### PARTITIVE

She hasn't any.....	20%
<i>Some</i> good books.....	4%
<i>La plupart de</i> .....	13%
Negative partitive.....	22%
<i>Some</i> water.....	11%
<i>beaucoup de</i> .....	9%

#### RELATIVE PRONOUNS

<i>Que</i> .....	4%
<i>Dont</i> .....	31%

#### INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

<i>Qui</i> .....	4%
<i>Qu'est-ce qui</i> .....	60%
<i>Lequel</i> .....	53%

#### DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

The <i>one</i> that.....	56%
Those.....	73%

#### UNCLASSIFIED

<i>Avoir faim</i> .....	22%
<i>Avoir sommeil</i> .....	68%
<i>Un nouvel ami</i> .....	71%
Distinction between <i>de</i> and <i>par</i> after passive.....	62%
Seventy-two.....	68%
Twenty-third.....	36%
Quarter to three.....	47%
At your aunt's.....	18%
I know <i>what</i> will happen.....	56%

Conditions revealed by these error counts are startling. Whatever may be said concerning the importance of certain of the grammatical points upon which errors have been counted everyone agrees on the importance of knowing the verb forms, not only the regular verbs but also the commonest irregular verbs.

Let us then examine the error counts from the standpoint of the verb. In the Manitoba count we find that pupils who have studied French for three years, on 20% of the opportunities offered, make mistakes in verb forms. This percentage would be raised slightly by the inclusion of verbs with orthographical peculiarities of the type of *jeter* and *appeler*. In the Ontario count from four year pupils we find the percentage of error in verb forms reduced to 11%. It is doubtful if this indicates as great a reduction in error as one might suppose, since the Ontario count has also a 14% error in vocabulary and a 6% error in spelling. Some of these cases ought undoubtedly to be classed under forms of verbs as they were in the Manitoba count.

When we come to the Ontario five year pupils, errors ranging from 15% to 60% on such irregular verbs as *naître, connaître, conduire, ouvrir, pouvoir, venir, boire* and *partir* indicate a lamentable ignorance of verb forms.

When we come to the uses of the verb, conditions are no better. Manitoba three year pupils fail to use the subjunctive correctly after verbs of wishing and willing, after verbs of hoping, and after verbs of emotion from 39% to 48% of the time. A 15% to 61% error is found in the case of the Ontario four year pupils with the subjunctive after *il faut, il est important* and *il est impossible*. With the Ontario five year pupils we find a 47% to 67% error in the use of the subjunctive after *vouloir, avant que, afin que*, and *valoir mieux*, to say nothing of more difficult



cases. In fairness to the five year pupils it must be said that the test technique frequently made it impossible to decide whether the error was in the form or in the use of the subjunctive. This defect is being corrected in a revision of the test.

To be noted also are the following errors:

Manitoba three year pupils:

Present indicative with <i>depuis</i> .....	59%
Imperfect indicative with <i>depuis</i> .....	89%
<i>Venir de</i> (imperfect).....	81%

Ontario four year pupils:

Wrong preposition with verbs.....	42%
Subjunctive after " <i>il est content</i> ".....	51%
Failure to use <i>y</i> .....	81%
Expressing time of day.....	38%

Ontario five year pupils:

Agreement of past participle with preceding direct object.....	44%
Imperfect (with <i>depuis</i> ).....	73%
<i>Faire</i> (it is cold).....	24%
I know <i>what</i> will happen.....	56%

A complete analysis of errors has not been attempted here, but sufficient data have been presented to show the importance of error counts which should, however, be studied in connection with frequency counts of grammatical forms and constructions and diagnostic grammar tests. They will then serve to discover the commonest errors and help to improve methods of instruction and learning.

## TWO AMERICAN EXPERIMENTS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

### I. THE BOND READING METHOD

In many American colleges the problems of the modern language departments are complicated by the fact that numbers of students enter without language credits, so that elementary courses must be offered, not only in German or Spanish, but also in French. Professor Otto F. Bond, in discussing the organization and methods of such teaching in the junior college of the University of Chicago,<sup>1</sup> points out that the college elementary language course is essentially a secondary school course dealing largely with adolescents and having to provide for students with widely divergent linguistic aims; but it is recognized that the one objective common to all these students is the attainment of reading ability. The classes under Mr. Bond's direction want to learn to read the language they are studying. It is this ambition in the mind of the student that forms the basis of the method which is described under the significant title, *Reading for language power*.

<sup>1</sup>Otto F. Bond, *Reading for Language Power*, *The Modern Language Journal*, Volume X, No. 7, April, 1926. The theory that linguistic teaching, whether aiming at the understanding, writing, or speaking of the language concerned, should be based on the attainment of a sound reading ability, was first propounded and put into practice by Claude Marcel, author of *De l'étude des langues*, Paris, 1855, *Méthode rationnelle pour apprendre la langue française* . . ., 1885, etc. Marcel also used "direct reading" to describe the process by which the written word, as in the mother tongue, instantly recalls the thought, which is the object aimed at. Indirect reading is reading with the help of a translation. This method was given its first modern application in America in Wilkins' *First Italian Book*, University of Chicago Press, 1920.

The method is direct in that it endeavours to establish immediate connection in the student's mind between the printed word and its sound and meaning, without the intervention of any process of translation; and it is a "natural method" in that it induces the learner to experiment in understanding, just as the child experiments in the acquisition of its mother tongue. It is perhaps in this point that the Bond method is most sharply differentiated from procedures, whether direct or grammatical, which make the unnatural demand for "mastery at each stage before proceeding to the next". The plan about to be described is a compromise between strict standardization and the needs of the individual, which demand special consideration in a group of students, containing some who propose to use the new language for some definite technical end, others who will find in it the main work of their college course, and others again who are merely seeking the requisite credits.

The junior college courses are three in number, each comprising about 50 recitations of 50 minutes. They correspond respectively to one, two, and two and a half years of school French. Each course aims at one central objective; thus in the first quarter, the beginner finds his attention concentrated upon the understanding of easy French, written and spoken; composition is deferred, and grammar taught with a view to the recognition rather than the use of forms and constructions. An elementary study of phonetics lays the foundation of a correct pronunciation. About 500 pages are read.

In the second quarter emphasis is shifted from understanding to reproduction; instruction is largely in French, and aims at the development of skill in oral and written expression. Translation from English is rarely or never called for after the first week of the first quarter. There

is further work in pronunciation, with reading of phonetic texts. The assigned texts are more difficult and comprise from 500 to 700 pages.

The third quarter's instruction seeks to strengthen the skill so far attained in understanding and reproduction. Exercises are planned to encourage linguistic fluency and accuracy. Résumés and short themes are written in French, and about 800 pages of more advanced texts assigned; a notable feature of the reading at this stage is the correlation of nearly one-third of the material with the student's intellectual activities in other fields.

At the end of the third quarter the student is held to have reached the standard usually attained in two and a half years at school, and is now ready to proceed with a reading course conducted in French, covering about 350 pages of intensive reading from a list of texts, of which the most difficult is perhaps Taine's *Origines*, and a further extensive reading of some 600 pages. This material is the basis of weekly themes and reports written or spoken in French.

Such is the general outline of the junior college course in French. The present discussion is more directly concerned with the conduct and organization of the reading assignments upon which the success of the whole programme rests.

At the beginning of the course each student fills out a detailed record form giving information of an academic and personal nature that will have a bearing on his subsequent reading in French. His contact with the language begins with a grammatical analysis directed solely towards the recognition of the linguistic facts that he will encounter in reading the simple stories of the early weeks. This is completed in some twenty recitations, and in the fifth week the intensive reading of



Lavissee, *Cours Moyen*, is begun, the collection of stories being finished as extensive reading. The same process is applied to those portions of the Lavissee that cannot be discussed in class during the available time. Thus the first quarter has accomplished about 500 pages of reading, some of which has had to be translated in the beginning, and most of which has dealt with the geography or history of France. It is to be noted that the extensive reading in this quarter is not subject to tests or tutorial conferences.

In the second quarter the amount of reading assigned does not increase, but it must be remembered that stress is being laid on the reproduction side of the language study. One of the weekly recitations is replaced by a conference on the extensive reading schedule; the content of which, as of all the reading in this quarter, is concerned with the French *people*. It is at this stage that the student's individual needs and preferences are given free scope within the assigned field. He is not told what he must read, but is not encouraged in unprofitable reading. The practical management of this part of the work is facilitated by the existence of a departmental library, with open shelves and liberal borrowing privileges.

The third quarter varies from the second only in an increased minimum of 500 pages of extensive reading, the first half of which must correlate with the student's work in some field. The total assignment for this quarter amounts to 800 pages, and the subject is French art, literature and science.

The arrangement and prescription of the reading in these three courses is summarized in the table given by Professor Bond in the article mentioned above, from which much of the foregoing information is abridged:

TABLE I—READING PROGRAMME FOR JUNIOR COLLEGE FIRST YEAR FRENCH  
1924-25

Outline	
Course I	<p>Intensive reading with daily translation drill beginning the second week: total amount—350 pages.</p> <p>Extensive reading with reports beginning the fourth week: minimum amount—170 pages.</p> <p>Total required reading for Course I—520 pages.</p> <p>Topic: Geography and political and institutional history of France.</p> <p>Texts: Méras and Roth, <i>Petits Contes de France</i>; Lavissee, <i>Histoire de France, Cours moyen</i>; mimeographed material.</p>
Course II	<p>Intensive reading with little translation drill but with copious exercises: total amount—300 pages.</p> <p>Extensive reading with reports and conferences beginning the second week: minimum amount—200 pages. (The average of the preceding quarter is taken as the minimum—198.5 pages.) Total required reading for the course—500 pages.</p> <p>Topic: French people, customs, folklore, every-day life.</p> <p>Texts: Labiche, <i>Voyage de M. Perrichon</i>; Daudet, <i>Le Petit Chose</i>; mimeographed material.</p>
Course III	<p>Intensive reading with minimum of translation and maximum of "direct" drill and <i>explication de texte</i>: total amount—approx. 300 pages.</p> <p>Extensive reading with reports and conferences beginning the second week: minimum amount equal to the average of the preceding course, approximately 500 pages.</p> <p>Total required reading for the course—800 pages.</p> <p>Topic: French art, literature and science.</p> <p>Texts: Hugo, <i>Les Misérables</i>; Daniels, <i>Contes de la France contemporaine</i>.</p>

This plan of work, it will be noted, gives ample opportunity for motivated effort. It is proved to the student that the new language is an instrument of profit and pleasure, and that the best way to perfect himself in the use of this instrument is to use it—an idea to which the originators of many school language programmes seem strangely resistant. In practice it is found that "once the student realizes that he can ride his hobby or follow his favourite study through the medium of the foreign idiom, his satisfaction and sense of mastery make

him almost unmanageable before the new world open to exploration."

The present writer was privileged to see something of the system in operation, and his notes on a class in the middle of their second quarter may be taken as representative of the procedure in class-room discussion of a text. Economy of time is essential to this intensive work, so that the individual recitation is sparingly employed; passages are read in chorus, with *explication de mots* by the instructor and questions by the students. These questions seemed to come quite naturally in French, and whatever may have been their short-comings in the matter of grammar and phonetics, it was evident that this group, mainly of freshman age, had overcome its fear of trying to express itself in a little known idiom. The attitude of the class was informal and apparently casual, but it became clear as the recitation progressed that interest in the work was keen and intelligent. The instructor's reading was punctuated by interjected questions on words that needed explanation, or on grammatical constructions not understood. The last ten minutes of the class were devoted to a written reproduction exercise: three minutes were allowed for the reading of a story to be summarized by writing 100 words in seven minutes. Reports on assigned reading were handed in. The total impression was that the course had succeeded in evoking "the live interest of the individual student".

The student's approach to his extensive reading is guided by a number of suggestions and directions that are admirably summarized in a booklet on language study methods.<sup>1</sup> These are developed on the principle of slow

<sup>1</sup>Peter Hagboldt, *How to study modern languages in college*, The University of Chicago Press.

gradation of difficulty and the cultivation of "paragraph reading" in place of the transliteration that must result from detailed translation. The student is to select his material for the interest of its content, and in reading is advised to proceed from the general to the particular; that is to say, his first concern should be to gain a clear notion of the paragraph, and then, using all the evidence of context and inference, to arrive at the meaning of its component parts. But unessential words are to be neglected, just as the child neglects unknown words while reading for pleasure in its mother tongue, or as the adult reader passes over terms and technicalities that lie outside his own field of experience. "If the student reads according to these instructions, he soon passes from the deciphering stage through the period of recognition of thought-groups to the easy comprehension of the larger units of expression represented by the sentence and the paragraph. Words assume the colour and meaning that only rapid reading without deciphering can give them. Reading 'for the thought' becomes an actuality long before the student's own expression abilities have got fully under way."

The junior college at Chicago keeps exact records of students' reading reports. Figures for Course I in the autumn quarter of 1924 show that the 45 students enrolled covered an average of 200 pages of extensive reading, in addition to the 350 pages prescribed for more exact study and that 36 of the group added a further 105 pages of voluntary reading, making a total of 625 pages for three-quarters of the students concerned. The most enthusiastic of them swallowed nearly 1,100 pages of text, but he had studied French for two semesters in high school three years before. The books read by this group are listed, with the number of students reporting



on them. The order of preference is: *Sans Famille*, 9; *La Poudre aux yeux*, 6; Daudet, *Contes*, 4. Other authors mentioned are Mérimée, Maupassant, Balzac, A. France, *et al.*

Extensive reading is reported on special slips. After filling routine details the student is asked to note the subject matter of the pages reported on, his own reaction to the content, its value, a summary in 100 words, and a significant quotation. He is instructed in detail as to the possible meanings of these headings, and his report is examined in conference or privately. No credit is assigned to the student for this work; its object is to increase reading ability and the growth of this ability is measured by tests. The number of pages read is no indication of increased skill. The student's choice is guided by brief talks on the values and content of available material. Occasionally the reading of a group will be directed by suggestions along certain lines, but the individual with definite tastes is always free to work out his own scheme.

"The growth of the reading ability is an interesting phenomenon to watch. A reading-rate check taken the tenth week of the first quarter for a group of students indicated an average rate of 128 words per minute, with understanding. The material, drawn from Lavissee, *Histoire de France*, totalled about 3,200 words, was unknown to the class and was controlled by a questionnaire in French. This text is usually rated as low intermediate. The check lacks scientific precision, but has some value as an index of reading accomplishment.

A detailed record of the growth of the reading-rate in one individual, who had had no previous contact with French, received no assistance, was over-age for language study, carried a full graduate study programme in a physiological science and could receive no credit for the

course, shows a reading rate in Méras and Roth, *Petits Contes de France*, of one page in thirty minutes the second day of the quarter, one page in eleven minutes three weeks later, and one page in seven minutes at the close of the sixth week, when the text was completed. A similar check taken for twenty students over the third to fifth week period of the first quarter shows a trebling of the rate in these two weeks.

There is considerable correlation between the amount of reading done and the quality of the understanding of the printed word, a correlation not mensurable in exact terms but none the less obvious to the reader of the report slips. Furthermore, test summaries in recent years show a correlation between an increasing power to read and the growth in other language abilities. Those who read most do better, as a rule, in other language phases, and low ability in other phases than reading accompanies low extensive reading totals."

Not the least interesting feature of the summary of reading reports is the section dealing with correlated reading. Among 27 students making such returns in Course III are found members of 10 departments of university study, reporting reading from as many different sources; an art student has read Rodin on architecture, a chemist consulted Auger on quantitative analysis, a latinist working on Seneca studied Racine and Corneille, an economic geographer had gone to Cavailles and Fallex, etc.; these 27 have covered from 50 to 1,300 pages in the pursuit of their special requirements. By their own testimony the correlated reading of these students would have been wider if its use had been encouraged more by other departments in the university, but what is done is amply sufficient to prove that the reading power developed in the earlier stages of the course has

become reading habit by the end of the third quarter. Further, the success of junior college students in the higher courses of the university proper shows that the cultivation of this reading power has at the same time produced a high level of attainment in the other branches of linguistic study. In Course IV the junior college students come into competition with others who have entered with school credits in French, at least two years of French in an approved high school. The results of two years' statistics for the years 1920-1923 show that in Course IV students prepared in the junior college formed 40% of the enrolment, carried off 44% of the honour grades, and had only one failure, which was subsequently raised to a pass.

Professor Bond gives also percentage figures for honour grades and for failures over five years of the three junior college courses, which show progressive increase in the former and decrease in the latter. He concludes: "The real proof of power, however, is not to be found in statistics and averages, but in the behaviour of the students themselves as they are observed reading for their own ends, using French sources for English, science, or history term-papers, applying for foreign scholarships or travel information, making the beginnings of a private library of French books, changing university sequences to modern languages, and otherwise indicating a permanent interest in and use of the language. Such data are vital. They mean something."

## II. THE CLEVELAND PLAN

In his manual entitled *The Cleveland Plan*,<sup>1</sup> Professor de Sauzé describes the system that was introduced, after

<sup>1</sup>E. B. de Sauzé, *The Cleveland Plan for the teaching of modern languages*, The John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia.



an experimental survey in 1918, into the high school modern language classes of the city of Cleveland. The language mainly concerned was French, and that language only is considered in the following account of the system.

The primary aim of the Cleveland plan is the intellectual and cultural development of the student. This objective cannot be attained without developing certain linguistic skills, but these skills are secondary to the true educational values of language teaching; therefore many ancient practices have been cast aside because they do not provide sufficient mental stimulus. Thus there is no place for translation from French into English, for the mechanical repetition of paradigms, nor for any memorizing that can be replaced by reasoning.

On these principles, the plan has developed a method for producing the secondary aims, namely, the ability to read, write, pronounce, speak and understand, and, in the advanced stages, a familiarity with French civilization, ideals and literature. The scope of these abilities is naturally qualified by the phrase "within the limits of his vocabulary." In reading, the "direct bond" is emphasized, and the following very important pronouncement is made upon the thorny question of spoken French in the school: "Our survey has demonstrated to us that the shortest road to a mere reading knowledge of a language is through oral drill. The ability to speak and the ability to understand in our Cleveland scheme of teaching are by-products of the method used; we would still continue to use oral drill, even if we had decided that it was not important to impart any other knowledge of the language than the mastery of the fundamentals and the ability to read spontaneously". The standard of pronunciation set is one that "should be sufficiently correct not to be offensive to a native". It is assumed



that "only a few gifted ones, with keen ears and a well-developed power of imitation, can ever be expected to acquire *intonation*, that elusive musical element of pronunciation".

The technique of the teaching is founded on the principle of small units, whether of grammar or vocabulary, and much practice. One thing must be mastered at a time. The Cleveland plan does not allow the teaching of grammar for recognition purposes. Grammar is taught in French, oral composition frequently employed, and a considerable amount of writing required on the black-board or at home.

Thus it appears that in its insistence on oral work in the class-room, its rejection of translation, its use of the language taught for all pedagogical occasions, the Cleveland plan resembles the Quebec system. It differs, however, in two important particulars; it does not set the oral ability as its first objective and it does not attempt to teach the language to every pupil in every class. In considering the method and results of the Cleveland plan, it must be kept in mind that teachers working under it have the inestimable privilege of dealing with selected pupils. A paragraph on page 14 of the manual deals with the organization of classes: "The progressive school administrator will not fail to make use of the intelligence tests in order to determine in advance which students can profitably enter more difficult academic subjects, such as the foreign languages. Our experiments in Cleveland have shown that an intelligence quotient of 100 or more is necessary to enable a student to wrestle with the scientific<sup>1</sup> aspect of the language study. It means that 30 to 40 per cent. of the student population should

<sup>1</sup>It may be assumed that by "scientific" Professor de Sauzé means the aspect of language study that produces intellectual development.

promptly be discouraged from entering these classes. A French class organized on a selective basis can be conducted by a skilful teacher with a percentage of failure of only 6 to 7 per cent.; in classes promiscuously organized, if the standard is maintained as it should be, the mortality may be as high as 40 per cent. The moral effect on the student who contracts the unfortunate habit of failing is equal only to the profound discouragement that takes hold of the French teacher who is wrestling every day with the impossible, the thankless task of dealing with minds wholly unsuited to the complexity of the work."

The syllabus is arranged to give a sound basis of grammar and pronunciation during the first three semesters using the director's own *Cours pratique*,<sup>1</sup> which contains a page or more of prepared reading material to each lesson. In the third semester or first half of the second year, a simple collection of stories is introduced, and from 50 to 75 pages are read. This is followed in the fourth semester by a more detailed course in grammar,<sup>2</sup> using a text-book written entirely in French, except that it calls for English-French translation exercises; the reading assignment for this semester requires about 125 pages of text such as *La Poudre aux yeux* or *Sans Famille*, that is to say of the standard usually set for junior matriculation in Canada. At this stage there is special stress on verb forms, regular and irregular.

During the third year the grammar study is continued and the amount of reading increased to about 300 pages. In this and the previous year there is optional reading from *Le Petit Journal*, a small French journal edited in

<sup>1</sup>E. B. de Sauzé, *Cours pratique*, John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia.

<sup>2</sup>De Sauzé and True, *Grammaire française*, Winston, Philadelphia.

the United States for the use of schools. A large proportion of the pupils appear to subscribe to it.

The fourth year's work comprises a review of grammar with some 300 pages of reading texts such as *Tartarin de Tarascon*, *Pêcheur d'Islande*, etc. One semester of French is offered in the fifth year, covering about 200 pages of works like *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme*, *Le Gendre de M. Poirier*, *Poèmes et Chants de France*.

The teaching is controlled by the director, who also has charge of instruction in Latin, and results are checked from time to time by means of standardized tests, devised for the special requirements of the Cleveland schools, that is to say, covering the matter contained in the prescribed books. The duties and functions of the director are not dissimilar to those of the director of French teaching in Montreal, though the latter is not responsible for the formal training of his language teachers. It is worth recording that the same audition test was applied to pupils in the two cities, and that similar results were reached in each case. However, as the test was too elementary to give an adequate measure of aural comprehension, little can be deduced from it except the general conclusion that Cleveland pupils undoubtedly learn to understand the spoken word.

From the Canadian point of view the most interesting feature of this programme is the amount of reading accomplished in the four or four and a half years. Roughly 1000 pages are read and carefully studied in class. In Canada it is unusual to find a provincial syllabus requiring as much as 500 pages in the first four years, and it is to be remembered that the Cleveland plan is frequently criticized by American methodologists for the narrow range of its reading.

Class-room observation carried out in five representa-



tive schools left the writer with a strong impression that the Cleveland plan does what it claims to do. At every stage of secondary education pupils were found to be keenly interested in the work, and teachers were notably efficient in both language and method, in which they are trained by the director at the city's School of Education. Class-rooms are admirably equipped for language work; most of them are well provided with pictures of famous buildings in France, reproductions of well-known paintings, railway posters and illustrations taken from periodicals. The newer buildings have a broad strip of cork or some similar substance above the black-board, on which illustrative material can be easily pinned, and these illustrations were referred to in the course of more than one lesson.

The usual devices for securing speed and interest in oral work were capably and frequently employed, charades, songs, *jeux d'orthographe*, dialogues. All work written on the blackboard was read aloud by its author before being corrected, and in every case careful attention was given to accuracy of pronunciation. In the matter of the spoken language teachers were fluent and grammatically accurate, though naturally there were various degrees of phonetic exactitude.

The use of the French language for purposes of grammatical instruction, about which teachers in general are apt to be sceptical, seemed to present little difficulty to Cleveland pupils, and an interesting application of the process was studied in one sixth semester class. In the course of reading *Le Petit Chose*, a case of subjunctive usage came up and was fluently explained in French by several pupils. The teacher in this case was a young Frenchman, qualified for secondary school work in France, and it was significant that the class were suffi-



ciently at home in the language to enable him to treat the text somewhat as he would have done with a group of French boys. Discussion was spontaneous and free, and several pupils displayed a remarkable linguistic capacity.

The total impression left on the observer's mind was that French in the Cleveland schools is a lively and acceptable subject of instruction to all pupils, and that a very high degree of success is attained. On the other hand, it is not so clear whether this success is the result of the system or of the efficiency and enthusiasm of director and teachers working on the selected material that they are able to command.

## MODERN LANGUAGE COMPOSITION SCALES

Free composition is considered by many teachers to be the best index of linguistic attainment. Be that as it may the committees felt that a battery of tests designed to measure linguistic achievement would be incomplete without some means of measuring composition. Oral composition does not lend itself to objective group measurement, and so it was decided to include in the battery a test of written composition. A sample of individual achievement in free composition is easily obtained; the difficulty lies in rating it in objective and comparable terms. For this purpose the construction of composition scales was undertaken in order to reduce to a minimum the subjective element in the rating of compositions. Apart from their value as instruments of measurement, such scales have a wider usefulness in rendering identifiable to students and teachers stages of progress in the development of ability in composition.

The laborious task of building the scales was carried out for French by Professor M. R. Trabue of the University of North Carolina, for German by Professor Elizabeth Rossberg of Milwaukee-Downer College, and for Spanish by Professor V. A. C. Henmon of the University of Wisconsin. From one hundred to one hundred and fifty teachers aided in the work of rating the compositions from which the scales were constructed.

### DIRECTIONS FOR USING THE COMPOSITION SCALES

1. *What the scales measure.* The composition scales were devised for use in measuring the general quality of

compositions in a foreign language. They represent the combined judgment of a large number of competent teachers, each judging the compositions by his own standards. In making use of the scales, one should follow the same rule as was used by these teachers in their construction, namely, "Consider in your ratings all the factors which enter into a good composition, giving to each factor only such weight as you think it should have." A scale is not designed to analyse the student's work or to indicate what remedial treatment he needs, but it does furnish a basis for an intelligent and reasonably objective statement of the general quality of compositions in a foreign language written by high school and college students.

2. *When to use them.* The composition scales are not intended for daily use by the teacher. They are measuring instruments, not teaching devices. They are designed for periodic use in measuring the general results of instruction rather than for continuous service in the class-room. During a given period of instruction the teacher may be emphasizing sentence structure; at another period he may be trying to enlarge the student's vocabulary; and at other periods there will be other specific objectives in the instruction; but at least once a year it is desirable to measure the general merit of the compositions written as a result of all these special efforts. The composition scales will not tell the teacher what to teach or how to teach it, but they will serve as a basis for useful comparisons of one class with another, of one method of instruction with another, or as measures of the general improvement obtained in a class during a given period of time.

3. *The unit of measurement.* The unit of measurement employed in the composition scales is the statistical unit

known as the probable error (P.E.). In everyday speech one P.E. is just such a difference between two compositions as would be recognized by 75 out of 100 judges. The difference between a composition of quality 6 and another composition of quality 7 is so small that 25 out of 100 of the judges who aided in constructing the scale would say that the first composition was better than the second, while exactly 75 of them would say that the second was better.

4. *Measuring the quality of a pupil's composition.* One should be thoroughly familiar with the general characteristics of the samples on any scale before undertaking to employ it. Observe carefully the progressive improvement in general quality from sample 2 to sample 3, from sample 3 to sample 4, and so on up to the highest.

Read the pupil's composition for the purpose of gaining a clear idea of its general merit. Compare the general value of the composition with the general merits of the samples on the scales. Give to the composition the numerical value (10, 11, 12, etc.) of that scale sample which comes nearest to having the same general merit. If a composition is about as good as quality 4, is clearly better than quality 3, and is clearly poorer than quality 5, mark it as 4.

In comparing compositions with the scale one should move from higher values to lower values as often as from lower values to higher. If one compares in one direction only, there is danger of assuming an equality of merit too quickly, and thus developing a constant error. Going down the scale until a quality is found which is distinctly poorer than the one in hand, then going up the scale until one finds a quality distinctly better than the composition in hand, gives a set of limits between which some satisfactory compromise can readily be made. Such a com-



promise is quite likely to be the score that another equally competent judge would assign if he followed the same careful procedure. Teachers are warned against trying to make comparisons on the basis of the number of errors in the samples and in the compositions to be scaled. The comparison should be general and should be based on the value of the composition as a whole.

5. *Statistical treatment of scores.* It was impossible to obtain suitable compositions for the scales which had exactly the scale values given. For example, the exact P.E. value of sample 2 on the French scale is 1.94. For all practical purposes, however, it is sufficient to use the integral quality values given in the scale.

The samples in the scales are compositions written upon the pictures contained in form A of the committee's free composition tests in French, German and Spanish.

The scales as they appear in the manuals for the committee's tests are reproduced below:

## FRENCH COMPOSITION SCALE

### Quality 2

Cet el la bois fame et contents leur l fleur se ce trouve poor chose. Maitres ami des, portent heureux donent ecole homme mangent pas. La pannier y tres vielle du chatte vetaments aveck nourriture petits neige pauvres. Ceux quelque aurat hiver parceque maison je suis viand derriere vieux sabots, legumes, fruits, tableau, bonbon, n a la cote mais pauvres femmes si quelque mondes peutetre aussi. Voyez ancient enfants ensuite a maison poor caddeau avaient que pannier poret. Malheureux Noel et viandes le jour ne vie und besoin belle fils.

### Quality 3

Ce cado a mit personns parce que il ne sont viands mais besoins. Le sont tres beaucoup. Quatre fillies donne sa basket. Ont frapet sur le mason un quel ce l'ouvriert voila bon shose on la porch. Even le kitte est interesse in leur contents de basket, fleurs, chicken, pomes de tere, et otre choses de Noel. Est bettere au doner quand au recevoir. Eux est gros joies parce que ils avont vu le ancientes avec plenti au manger.

**Quality 4**

Un jour une old dame et sa husband asseyez un maison. La maison est vere poure. C'est cinq jours devant Noel. Ils sont vere poure et ils n'ont pas manger. Juile, Jean, Robert, et Madline se trouve à la sud. Ils ont learned qu'il n'a pas mange.

Il est Noël et i' est six heures et le dame et sa husband sont up il entendu une knock à la porte. Le homme allez à la porte et trouvez une basket. En est vere bonnes things.

**Quality 5**

Une vielle homme et son femme habitait dans a ramshackled housé. Ils étaient très pauvre que bonné. Il est Christmas et ils avaient rein. Some enfants apportez un basket des food placer on leur porch Christmas jour for un surprise. Le veillard et la vielle femme sont très proud aux presents. Ils sont dans la porch de leur home. Les petits gârçons concealed ils-même de la vielle femme et le homme et ils les sont regarde. Même le cat est interested dans le present.

**Quality 6**

Le père et la mère ouvent la porte sur matin de Noël, et ell vaut une panier qui a lui donnai que bonne homme Noël. Les ont tres pour et age. La maison est de bois. Il y a une maison dan la court de cette maison. Elle est de bois aussi. Il y a une fenêtre dan citte maison. Il a tres froid et la siege est sur la ground. Le cat regardé la panier aussi. Les enfants sont regardé lui mère, et père. Ils ont met les choses lá, et ils ont aussi content que sentiront la spirite de Noël.

**Quality 7**

Ce tableau sur le page opposé est un representation de Noël. Le vieux et la vielle sont tres heureux pour ils ont reçu un present. Le chat est heureux aussi. Ils semblent être très pauvre paysons. La maison est dans mal condition. Les enfants les ont donné les presents.

**Quality 8**

Sur cette illustration:—

Une fois à Noël un vieil homme et une gentille femme donnait le paquet avec le poulet, des bons bons; des fleurs de Noël; des raisins; et beaucoup de légumes. Ils très étaient joyeux.

Le chat étaiis regarder attentivement.

On voit les enfants heureux.

L'homme et la femme étaient pauvre.

Leur maison étaiis petite avec un table; deux chaise.

Ils ont faim hier mais les enfants les donnait le paquet et il n'ont pas faim maintenant.

**Quality 9**

Les petits enfants sont très bon. Ils ont l'esperit de Noël. Ils ont donné à le pauvre homme et sa mairée quelques choses de bonne à manger pour Noël. Les viellards sont heureux. Il ne faut pas maintenant qu'ils aient faim sur le jour de Noël. Les jeunes enfants sont heureux aussi parce qu'ils voient que la vielle famille est heureux. Le viellard remercie la bonne Dieux qui lui a envoyé

ces bonnes choses à manger. C'est l'esprit de Noël. Partout presque toute la monde fait cela. Toute la monde veut qu'il fait quelqu'un heureux.

### Quality 10

Dans une petite campagne il y avait un vieux homme et une vieille femme. Ces peuples demeurent un seul dans une très petite maison. Il y avait dans la même campagne un peu garçons et filles qui étaient beaucoup ennuyés pour le vieux homme et femme.

Quand Noël de jour est arrivé les enfants ont donné d'argent ensemble et ont acheté les vieux peuples un panier de fruit. Les garçons et les filles ont laissé le panier de fruit près de la porte de l'homme et la femme. Quand les peuples sont sortis pour un peu d'air, ils ont vu tout de suite le panier rempli avec toutes sortes de fruits. Aussi ils ont su pourquoi on leur a apporté les fruits, les vieux peuples ont commencé à crier. Mais quand ils ont vu que les enfants étaient très heureux, le vieux homme et femme se sont arrêtés criant. Ils ont pris le panier de fruit et les enfants dans leur maison et les ont remerciés beaucoup. Après ce jour le vieux homme et la vieille femme ont demeuré heureux.

### Quality 11

La première chose que rencontre mes yeux est la vieillesse et le vieillard. Il est très âgé. Il a des cheveux blancs, un petit bâton et de pauvres vêtements. Il est très content avec le beau présent qui est à sa porte. Le vieillard a une petite casquette noire sur ses cheveux blancs.

Le chat désire de bonnes choses qui sont dans le panier. Ils lui semblent bonnes. Il y a des fruits, des fleurs, des bonbons, et quelques choses de manger.

Le vieillard est étonné aussi. Elle aussi semble très heureuse. La joie dans son visage le montre, elle semble qu'il est la plus grande joie de sa vie. Même si elle est pauvre, elle est très heureuse à ce moment. Son jupe est très déchirée.

Leur maison est une petite maison de bois. Les garçons derrière l'appui sont très contents aussi. Le vieillard et sa femme, ils ne savent pas que les garçons sont près d'eux parce qu'ils sont si éperdus. Je pense que les garçons ont mis le panier devant la porte de l'homme. Cependant, tout le monde est heureux.

### Quality 12

#### LE CADEAU NOËL

Il y a une famille à laquelle il y a un père, une mère et quatre enfants, trois garçons et une fille. Ils étaient très heureux parce qu'ils ont une maison qui est chaude et ils se sont aimés beaucoup. Il était le temps de Noël. Les enfants ont écrit des lettres au Petit Noël en le disant ce qu'ils ont voulu pour les cadeaux.

Sur le matin du Noël, les sabots étaient remplis avec les choses que les enfants ont demandées. La toute famille était heureuse. Après le dîner, la mère a demandé à les enfants s'ils n'ont voulu pas faire quelque chose pour de pauvres gens qui n'ont pas de Noël. Tous les enfants ont crié, "Oui! Oui!"

Jean, le plus vieux garçon a dit, "Je sais un vieil homme et sa femme qui ont demeurés dans la petite maison au bois. Le vieil homme a été très malade et n'était pas pu faire le travail." La mère a arrangé un panier avec du pain, de la

viande, du fruit, des légumes. La petite Marie a mis des houx sur le panier. Les enfants ont mis leurs habits, et leurs chapeaux et leur gants et ont pris le panier et s'en sont allés à la maison du vieil homme. Sur la vie Joan a ramené du fagots pour le feu.

Les enfants ont mis le panier sur la porche de la petite maison et ont frappé sur la porte. Puis ils ont couru et ont caché. Le vieil homme est allé à la porte. Quand il a vu le panier, il a appelé sa femme qui a venu à voir ce qu'il plaix son mari. Ils étaient très heureux. Les enfants ont dancéé avec joyeuse quand ils ont vu comme heureux los vieilles gens étaient. Ils ont couru dans la neige et le vieil homme et sa femme ont assis par le fer qu'on a fait avec le bois ramené de Jean et ils ont mangé les fruit et les bonnes choses que les enfants ont apportées.

### Quality 13

#### QUELQUE CHOSE POUR NÖEL

Un pauvre veillard et sa femme demuraient dans une vieille maison faite de bois. Le jour de Noël la terre était couverte de neige. Tout le monde était heureux, mais le veillard et sa femme n'étaient pas heureux parce qu'ils n'avaient pas de bois pour le feu, et ils avaient froid. Les pauvres n'avaient pas de pain et ils avaient faim.

L'homme et sa femme cousaient dans la maison. Ils n'ont pas vu quatre enfants à côté de la maison qui parlaient. Ils étaient heureux parcequ'ils avaient quelque chose a manger et ils n'avaient pas froid.

Tout à coup l'homme entend une frappe à la porte. . . . Il pense qu'il est le vent, mais il va à la porte et sa femme le suivit. Il demande, "Qui est là?" mais personne répond. Il ouvre la porte et l'homme et sa femme regardent quelque chose avec beaucoup de joie. C'était un panier plein de pain et beaucoup de choses à manger.

Ils cherchent quelqu'un mais ils ne voient personne. Ils n'ont pas vu les quatre enfants qui étaient près de la maison et qui riraient.

### Quality 14

C'est une très bonne chose que les enfants ont faite en donnant aux vieux gens un pannier de choses à manger. Il fait froid, et le veillard et sa femme ont faim, et ils sont trop pauvres pour pouvoir acheter les choses dont ils ont besoin.

Même le chat a faim. Leur cabane est petite et probablement très mal chauffée. Ce serait un triste Noël pour les vieux gens si les enfants n'avaient pas été si bons pour eux. Les enfants doivent apprendre d'avoir pitié pour les gens qui sont vieux, pauvres, et malheureux, et de leur donner de leurs biens autant que possible.

Noël est le plus joyeux temps de l'année pour la plupart des gens, et il faut penser aux autres qui ne sont pas aussi heureux. Les enfants peuvent montrer leur reconnaissance pour les bonnes choses qu'ils ont, en donnant aux pauvres et aux malheureux un peu de leur bons.

### Quality 15

#### LE CADEAU NOËL

Un veillard pauvre demeurait avec sa femme dans une maison de bois délabrée. L'hiver était très rigoureux et la neige couvrait la terre. Ils n'avaient



pas de feu. Le jour de Noël ils étaient très malheureux parce qu'ils avaient faim et froid. L'homme dit à sa femme tristement, "Le Noël ne nous donne pas la joie; nous sommes vieux et pauvres, et tout le monde nous a oubliés." Sa femme ne disait rien. Elle était trop malheureuse pour parler. C'était une nuit froide et triste.

Mais le lendemain matin le vieillard trouva à sa porte un cadeau. Les enfants du village l'avaient apporté. Il y trouva beaucoup de choses dont lui et sa femme avaient besoin. Ils étaient très heureux parce qu'ils avaient quelque chose à manger, aussi parce qu'ils savaient qu'on ne les avait pas oubliés. Ce fut un joyeux Noël pour le vieil homme et sa femme, aussi que pour les enfants. Ils avaient fait rendu un bienfait à un homme malheureux.

### Quality 16

Tous les ans on prépare un cadeau pour les familles pauvres. Le cadeau consiste en un panier rempli de choses dont les pauvres ont besoin: de la viande, des légumes de toutes sortes, du pain et des fruits. Le soir un homme ou une femme ou des enfants laissent le panier sur le seuil de la famille pauvre.

Cela leur fait grand plaisir et quelle joie pour la famille! Le Noël aurait été bien triste. Leur misère est d'autant plus pénible que la gaîté règne partout ailleurs. C'est la saison des grandes fêtes. Il est juste que les gens riches se souviennent que tout le monde n'est pas heureux. Il faut que la paix et le bien-être règnent partout à cette saison. Le cadeau est donc une expression de la charité des riches envers les pauvres.

Les enfants souriants ont laissé un panier bien rempli. Le vieillard et sa femme ont trouvé le cadeau. Leur joie et leur surprise sont grandes. Et le chien s'y intéresse aussi. Ce cadeau est modeste mais il apporte beaucoup de bonheur.

### Quality 17

#### LE CADEAU DU NOËL

Il y avait une fois un vieil homme et sa femme qui étaient très pauvres. Ils demeuraient dans une petite maison qui n'avait qu'une pièce où il leur fallait faire la cuisine, manger, dormir, et en somme y passer toute leur vie. Etant jeune, l'homme avait une petite boutique où il vendait des bonbons aux enfants. Très souvent, quand les petits garçons se tenaient debout devant sa vitrine, ayant envie d'acheter beaucoup de bonbons mais n'ayant pas d'argent, il leur donnait un morceau de gâteau ou un bonbon. Naturellement, à cause de sa générosité, tous les enfants de la ville, et aussi leur parents l'aimaient beaucoup. Ainsi, maintenant, qu'il est trop âgé pour travailler, et qu'il n'a pas beaucoup d'argent, tout le monde est très généreux envers lui. En vérité, comme vous le verrez, il reçoit maintenant l'intérêt des sous qu'il donnait aux enfants en gâteaux et bonbons.

Ce petit tableau nous donne un bon exemple des cadeaux que les enfants aiment à faire. C'est le jour avant Noël, et il fait très froid. Les parents des enfants ont préparé un panier qui contient toutes les choses qu'on mange à Noël. Il y avait du poulet, des pommes de terre, des légumes, des gâteaux, des fruits, des bonbons, du thé, du sucre, du pain, et du beurre. Les petits garçons qu'on avait choisis pour porter le panier à la petite maison sont arrivés. Un des enfants

va très soigneusement mettre le panier à la porte, et alors, il frappe à la porte et court très vite se cacher avec les autres garçons. Les deux vieux et leur chat sont venus à la porte pour voir qui y avait frappé. Imaginez leur surprise quand ils voient le cadeau qu'on leur avait donné.

### GERMAN COMPOSITION SCALE

#### Quality 0

Die Knob sie moschend eine Hous sie in ein baum est. Sie arbeitet ich sehe drie Knabe. Sie sind in einer Gross Baum.

#### Quality .5

Ich seh einer baum ich auch seh drie Knab. Sie sin Haus sind mackt auf das baum.

#### Quality 3

Die Knabe bauen ein Haus in einer grossen Baum. Das Haus hat fenster an alte Zeiten. Die Knabe sind Brudern. Sie alte tragen schwarze schnat.

#### Quality 4

Eine Tage drei Knaben waren spielen in einem Baum. Es war eine viel gross Baum und der Knaben sagte dass sie wurde ein Haus bauen. Sie zusammen brachte ein Hammer, Naegel und alle den Bretter das die gefunden koennen. Der war nicht Schule dass Tage und der Knaben vom Morgen and Nacht arbeiten.

#### Quality 5

Drei Knaben werden ein Haus im Baum (gebaut). Der Baumwipfel ist ein guten Platz fuer ein Haus. Diese Knaben werden schnell arbeiten als sie glauben dass bald es dunkelt werden sein. Der alten Baum auf der Hof stand. Viele Voegel haben nests (gebaut) und viele Leider sunge. Dieser Tag ist ein grosser Tag fuer der alte Baum. Die Blaettern schilter im der Wind als die Knaben arbeit.

#### Quality 6

Einige Zeit wollten drei Knaben eines Haus gebaut. Aber sie wollten den Maedchen mit ihnen spielen. So bauten sie das Haus hoch in dem Baum. Sie sammelten alles ihren Handwerksachen und begannen arbeiten. Gegen dem Baum stellten sie den Leiter und einer nach dem andern stiegen dem Baum mit den Hammern und Nagelern hinab. Der Baum auf welchem sie arbeiteten war sehr gross.

#### Quality 7

### DAS HAUS IN DEM BAUME

Ein Tag wunschen drei Knaben, Fritz, Hans und Martin, ein Haus bauen. Sein Vater sagte "Ihr konnet die Holz haben, dass ich hatte nicht wuenschen fuer unser neues Gebaeude.

So die drei Knaben erwiderten "Wir wollten bauen unser Haus in dem grossen Eich Baume hinter unserem Haus. Sie arbeiteten jedes Tag und ein Tur, sieben Fenster, ein Boden und ein (roof) machten.

Die Voegel songen waehrend die Knaben arbeiteten, die Eichkaetzer liefen auf und hinter, und die oder Knaben und Maedchen komen oft zu sehen die kleinen Haus.

#### Quality 8

Auf die Leiter (?) ist Alle drei Knaben sind um zwouelf Yahre alt. Sie sind sehr klug, weil sie so schoen ein Haus bauen koennen. Ein Knabe hat der Hammer in der Hand und ist fleissig am Naegel schlagen. Dieses Haus hat viele Fenster, und ich nehme das es ein Summer Haus ist. Vielleicht werden die Knaben darin wohnen weil das Wetter gut ist. Das wird schoen sein. Die Voegel werden sie amussieren, und die Laube wird die Sonne von ihnen palten.

#### Quality 9

Drei kleine Knabe bauten eines Haeuschen hoch in einem Baum. Das Haeuschen liegt auf den ersten grossen Aeste des Baumes. Es hat vielen Fenster aber die Fenster hatten keine (Glass).

Die Knabe sind um zehn Yahr alt. Zwei von ihnen hat nichts auf dem Kopf, der anderer hat einen Deckel. Der Knabe mit dem Deckel trug ein Brett, das er einem anderem Knabe gibt. Der dritte Knabe schlaegt einen Naegel in ein Brett mit seinem Hammer. Die Kinder werden darin spielen wenn es fertig ist.

#### Quality 10

Es war einmal drei Knaben, die wollen ein Haeuschen in einem Baum bauen. Das Haeuschen wird nicht gross sein, aber es wird gross genug fuer drei kleine Knaben. Es wird Sommer-Ferien und die Knaben wollen das Haeuschen schnell bauen, so sie darin spielen koennen ehe der Sommer zeit gegangen wird. Zwei knaben griffen das Holz und trugen es im Baum. Der andere Knabe saegte das Holz und hammerte ihn im Platz. Wenn das Haeuschen fertig wird, wird es sechs oder sieben Fenster haben. Vielleicht die Knaben werden ein Tisch und Stuehle darin stellen. Wenn der Tuer zugeschlieszen wird, werden die Knabe von der ganze Welt ausgeschlieszen. Wenn sie weggehen werde, werde sie der Leiter abnehmen, so dasz niemand in ihren Haeuschen hineinkommen koennte.

#### Quality 11

Frueh eines Morgens hoerte ich ein Klopfen im Garten nahbei. Ich konnte niemand sehen und so ging neugierig hinaus. Das Laerm schien von einem Baum zu kommen. "Dass muss ein sehr merkwuerdiger Vogel sein der so lustig klopfen (tap?) kann," dachte ich. Dann hoerte ich Stimmen und schaute den groessten Baum hinauf. Da sah ich drei Nachbar Knaben. Sie bauten ein.

#### Quality 12

##### DAS GEBAEUDE

Es ist in der wunderschoenen Monat Mai und jeder will in dem Sonnenschein sein. Drei lebensfrische Burschen beschaeftigen sich sehr. In einem grossen Baume mit vielen dicken knurrigen Aesten bauen sie sich ein nettes kleines Haus mit vielen Fenstern und einer Tuer. Der eine Knabe mit Hammer in der Hand treibt einen Nagel. Vor ihm haengt ein Saeg und zu sein Fuessen steht ein Seif

Boexchen, wohl haben sie Naegel darin. Der eine Knabe steht auf einer Leiter und hebt einem andern Knaben ein Brett empor. Der dritte Knabe der auf den Boden kniet hilft dem zweiten mit dem Brett.

Gerade warum sie das Haeuschen in dem wunderschoenen Baume bauen wissen wir nicht. Hier koennen sie die Studen verweilen, gerade wie die Voegel.

### Quality 13

Das wird ein Vergnuegen sein, in so ein schoenes Haeuschen zu wohnen, welches mit eigener Haend gebaut worden ist, hoch im Baum. Welch ein wunderbares Gefuehl, wenn man hier sitzen kann, oben im Baum, und zuhoerchen wie die Voegel lustige Lieder singen, und die Eichhoernchen hier und da mal kommen und einen kleinen Besuch machen. Da wird alle die Arbeit, die es genommen dieses Haeuschen zu Bauen vergessen werden, und der blaue Fingernagel wird auch bald verschwinden, der einer von ihnen bekommen hat, als der Hammer vom Kopfe des Nagels vorbeigegangen ist.

### Quality 14

#### KINDERSPIEL

Heinrich, Karl, und Georg sind die Kinder eines Zimmermannes. Der Vater sprach oft mit seine Soehne von seiner Arbeit. Manchmal haben die Kinder dem Vater geholfen; sie konnten ihm die Naegel bringen, oder den Hammer halten.

Einst gab der Vater den Knaben einige Bretter und eine Leiter. Georg sagt er moechte ein Vogelhaus bauen. Heinrich wollte eine Scheune bauen. Nach vielem Plaudern waelhte Karl eine Idee die den Bruedern auch gefiel. Eine Leiter wurde gegen Baum getragen, und die Arbeit war begonnen. Oben, unter grosze Aechste, wurde ein kleines Spielhaus gebaut.

Jeden Tag, nach der Schule, haben die Kinder da gelesen, gesungen oder geschrieben. Auch luden sie die Mutter und den Vater ein ihn zu besuchen.

## SPANISH COMPOSITION SCALE

### Quality 0

En el día de Navidad Ricardo, Ramón, Pablo y Francisco torcedura una cesta de abaceria para una familia.

### Quality .5

El almuerzo tiene en el canasta en las frutas café la ensalada, y la flores. Los hijos el aire libre amor aprovecharse que el cat saw el canasta. Yo si Padre y Madre.

### Quality 2

En este un pape hacía una casa. Hacia también los muchachoes y las muchachas. Estamos en diciembre. El señor y señor hay. Delante de es en —. Los muchachos y muchachas hay cerca de el señor y señora. El señor es blanco. El señor and señorita vive en el campo.

### Quality 3

Sus madre y padre son delante de casa. Los muchacho y las muchacha son detras de casa.



Juan y María Vds gusta. Gustan dulces y legumbres. En la piles hacía fresco legumbres. La puerta es verde. Las ventanas son ancho. Sus madre y padre son muy frío sino es verano. Gustan color temprano o lleve pequeña. En el verano nadaba remaba en el estanque sino hacía frío. Algunas veces.

#### Quality 4

Hay un muy enfermo hombre y mujer que viven en una casa en la bosque. Viven juntos. Un día van al ventana y (found) que algunas hijos da los algunos la carne y muchos (things) comer. Los hijos no (put) (a name on it).

Es este bosque viven un ganso, un pavo, un pato, una gallina, y un gallo. Hay bellotas en la ground. La case tiene dos ventanas, no electrica luz, algunas sillas y una mesa. La casa tiene dos cuartos. En la otro cuarto hay una cama y algunas sillas.

#### Quality 5

Había un viejo y su esposa, que tenía un gato. El era muy pobre.

Un día el dijo—Mi esposa, yo tengo hambre. Yo tengo nada—respondíola vieja.

En el proximo mañana vio una canasta grande en la galería.

¡Oh! dijo la vieja, una canasta grande por nos.

—Miz, oh! miz—llamó el viejo. Es un animal fiel, le dijo.

#### Quality 6

Los dos personas en el cuadro están viejo y estan muy pobre. Los ninos han puesto la comida en el casa de los personas viejas. Tenian un azotea en su casa. La casa es muy anciano y es ya caer. No han venido los ninos, quien estan en el lado de la casa. La comida es muy sabroso y los dos personas viejos son muy felices. El hombre viejo tenia pelos blancos y no puede ver. La mujer tenia pelos blancos, también.

#### Quality 7

Un viejo y una vieja vivían en el surburbio de Madrid. Hacíá muchos años que vivían con su hijo aquí. Su hijo era sólo sustento, porque no pueden trabajar. Un mes antes de Navidad, su hijo era muerte por unos ladrinos, a quien traté de escapar cuando trataron de llegar su dinero. El poco dinero que habían salvado pronto pasó. Unos hijos ricos aprendían de su desgracias. Conciertían de comprarles una cesta larga de alimento. En el día de Navidad ponían la cesto en el vestibulo de la casa de los viejos. Llamaron en la puerta y escondieron detrás de casa. Los viejos salimos y vimos la cesta.

#### Quality 8

Había un hombre y su esposa que estaban muy viejos. Vivían en una casita en el campo. Les hacía falta mucho dinero. Aunque no estaban ricos, les gustaban los niños y los animales. Tenían un gato que se llamaba Pedro. Un día los niños del pueblo querían ayudar a los viejos. Prepararon una canaste llena de buenas cosas. La llevaron a la casita y la dejaron a la puerta. Un niño llamó a la puerta y corréó. Cuando los viejos abrieron la puerta y vieron a la canaste, estaban muy gratos.

**Quality 9****DESCRIPCIÓN DEL CUADRO**

En el cuadro hay seis personas. Un viejo y una vieja ven la cesta que se ha traído a ellos. Se visten muy pobre; sus ropas son muy viejas. La falda de la pobre vieja es rota, y sus zapatillos, también, están en una pobre condición. El viejo lleva con sí mismo un baston para suportarse. Con los dos viejos está un gato que se acerca a la cesta para ver que contiene. Se puede ver en el cuadro las caras de los niños quién han traído la cesta y quién aguardan para que los viejos la descubran. La cesta es llena de los frutas de la tierra para la comida de los pobres viejos. El viejo tiene blanco pelo y un sombrero muy pequeño en su cabeza. También en el cuadro se puede ver una casita de madera. Tiene una ventana muy pequeña, y detrás de la casa está un árbol. La cesta, por vista, se ha traído para la comida de una día de fiesta, y los niños que la han traído allí están muy contentos con la sorpresa de la mujer y el hombre.

**Quality 10**

Es el día de Navidad, pero no hay nieve en el suelo. Un hombre viejo y su esposa están en la puerta de su casita. Encuentran fuera de la puerta una cesta de comestibles que algunos niños caritativos han puesto allí. Los niños se esconden a un lado de la casita y están vigilándoles. Quieren ver hallar a los viejos la cesta. Los viejos están muy sorprendidos y alegres. El hombre tiene los cabellos blancos y lleva una gorra negra sobre la cabeza. Sus vestidos están rotos y los pantalones son remendados. Tiene un bastón en la mano.

Los vestidos de la mujer están rotos también. El gato mira por la cesta. Los pobres van a tener una día de Navidad muy feliz. ¿No es bueno que haya algunas personas caritativas en el mundo?

**Quality 11****UN ACTO DE CARIDAD**

Había en un pueblo una mujer muy vieja que vivía con su marido en una chosa. Estos eran muy pobres porque no podían trabajar. Cuando llegó el día de la Navidad no tenían nada que comer. En una casa cerca de ésta vivían cuatro muchachos con sus padres. Eran tres niños and una niña. Ellos habían decidido de hacer felices a los pobres viejos. Durante los días de diciembre habían salvado sus monedas y tenían bastante duros para los viejos. En el veinte y cuatro de diciembre los niños se fueron a una tienda o una grocería. Compraron muchas cosas las cuales eran pan, verduras, frutas, leche, y muchas otras buenas cosas. Trajeron la cesta a sus casas y la pusieron sobre la mesa. El día siguiente se levantaron temprano y llevaron la cesta al escalón más alto de la casa de los viejos. Después taparon en la puerta y corrieron a ocultarse al lado de la casa. Entonces oyeron abrir la puerta y miraron un poco y vieron a los dos viejos muy alegres al ver la cesta muy llena de cosas para comer. Su gato también se fué a mirar a la grande cesta. Los dos se quedaron sorprendidos y se preguntaron el uno al otro quien podía ser que les había llevado la cesta. Un rato después los muchachos salieron de su plaza donde se ocultaron y acercaron a los viejos. La mujer y su marido les dieron muchas gracias a los niños. Los niños estaban muy felices porque habían hecho un acto de caridad y los viejos también estaban felices por tenían mucho que comer.

## RELIABILITY

The reliability of the ratings of compositions by means of the composition scales is discussed in the second volume. There is abundant evidence to show that the agreement between the ratings of the same composition made by different judges by means of the composition scales is very close. Correlations were found varying from .85 to .95. Since the correlation in percentage ratings is ordinarily about .65 and rarely goes above .75, even in the same schools or departments, the ratings made by means of the scale materially reduce the subjective element.

Unfortunately the correlation between different compositions written by the same pupils and scaled by the same judges seems to be low. Thus, while the subjective element in rating compositions has been reduced, we are still not sure that a single eight or ten minute composition is sufficient to give a true measure of a pupil's ability to write the foreign language. It is known that, other things being equal, increasing the length of a test increases its reliability. If, therefore, an exact measure of ability to write a foreign language is desired, the following suggestion is made. Choose four topics and have the pupils write an eight or ten minute composition on each topic. Rate the compositions separately, *i.e.*, rate first all the compositions on the first topic, then all those on the second topic, etc., being careful to keep the marks separate so that the ratings of one set may not influence the ratings of another. Average the scale values for the four compositions for the final score. The topics must be carefully chosen so that they do not overlap, and so that a different vocabulary is required for each one. In this way only can an adequate sampling of ability be secured.



## SAMPLE COMPOSITIONS FOR PRACTICE

Any person who tries to rate compositions must make sure of the reliability of his own judgments before basing conclusions upon the marks that he gives. This can best be done by comparing the ratings he gives to a set of compositions with the ratings of trained examiners. For the purpose of making such a comparison easy and dependable, a series of compositions is printed on pages 520 to 531. These compositions are chosen from compositions written during the recent testing. The scale values assigned to them by the committee's scorers are printed as a key on page 531. It is recommended that the scorer practise rating these compositions without referring to the keys. When he has rated all the samples he can compare his results with the key values. It is suggested also that he can test the reliability of his ratings by scoring a set of compositions, preserving the marks, and two weeks later comparing them with a new set of ratings of the same compositions.

## FRENCH

## 1

Je vois des enfants qui patinent dans la cour. Dans la maison est un homme et une dame vieux. Il y a une fenêtre dans la maison aussi. L'homme et la dame ont des mains qui sont très faibles. Les enfants regardent le chat. L'homme a une canne dans son main gauche. Les garçons ont les chapeaux.

## 2

Des enfants laissent du pain dans la. . . . Un chat en regardez. L'homme il a une canne. Ils sont jolie. Des enfants en regardent. Le maison est. . . . Il a une fenêtre. Un l'arbre poussent. Ils sont malade. Les garçons. . . .

## 3

Il y avait une fois un petit homme et une petite femme qui ont demeuré dans un petit maison. Un jour le petit homme ont ouvri la porte et il a vu des enfants qui le regardaient. Il a vu aussi une chatte et un panier plein de bons légumes qui les enfants avaient met sur le plafond de son maison.



## 4

C'était la jour de Noel quand les bons enfants du village ont donné un grand panier de les differents articles de la ville ordinaire à une pauvre dame et son marié. Dans ce panier il y avait des légumes, des fruits et de la viande. L'homme et sa marié étaient très contents quand ils les ont vu. Les enfants leur ont donné pour leur dîner à Noel parc qu'ils étaient très vieilles et pauvres. Les enfants. . . .

## 5

Voici un vieil homme et une vieille femme qui sont tres pauvres. Ils n'avaient pas d'argent acheter leur dîner pour le jour de l'an. Ils ont senti très mauvais et ils ont cru d'autres personnes qui avaient de l'argent acheter un bon dîner pour le jour de l'an. Le matin de le jour de l'an ils ont ouvri la porte et devant les il y a une boîte de bonnes choses pour leur dîner et elle était garni avec fleurs.

Des enfants les regardent per les trous voir les deux vieils personnes. Ils sont très heureux parqu'ils aura un bon dîner et aussi un bon dîner à offrir à des amis qui viennent.

Leur chat semble très heureux aussi et sent. . . .

## 6

## LE PANIER DE BONNES CHOSES A MANGER

Le grand'père et la grand'mère de Hanz Sepel demeurent à la campagne. Ils ont une petite ferme, mais ils sont très pauvres. Ils sont plus âgés et ne peuvent plus travailler.

Un jour Hanz Sepel et ses camarades ont gagnés de l'argent par travailler pour les marchands au village. Afin qu'ils surprenent les vieux gens, ils ont acheté des bonnes choses à manger pour leur offrir. Ils les ont pris. . . .

## 7

Un beau jour des filles et des garçons parlaient de grand-père Ribot et de grand'mère Ribot. Ils désiraient faire quelque chose qui feraient ces bonnes gens heureux. Aussi ils leur ont préparé un panier de bonnes choses et ils sont allés à leur maison. Ils avaient mis dans le panier des légumes, des fruits, et des fleurs. Un garçon monta l'escalier, et après avoir frappé à la porte et après . . . le panier à côté de la porte, s'en sont allés.

## 8

Voici un joli image n'est-ce pas. A la porte sont deux peuples. L'un un vieil homme et l'autre une vieille femme. Derrier la maison est la grange. Le chat regarde les enfants Qui est à côté de la maison Le plein est pliens de fruits. Les enfants regardent être heureux.

## 9

Un vieil homme et une vieille dame sont près d'un panier de légumes ou quelque chose de bon à manger. Un petit chat est près aussi. Peut-être qu'il est le jour de Noël. Des enfants aiment les bonnes choses et ils courent voir s'ils peuvent en avoir.

Une dame qui a beaucoup d'argent a envoyé peut-être ces enfants avec ce panier et ils attendent voir si la dame et l'homme le voient.

La dame est bonne et l'homme regarde le panier contentement et doucement. Peut-être ils n'ont pas d'argent ou ils ont beaucoup de faim. Je n'espère pas. Un arbre, . . .

## 10

Une vieille dame et un vieux homme sont dans l'image. Un chat y est aussi. Ils sont pauvres. De bons enfants leur ont apporté de bonnes choses pour manger. Ce sont de très beaux enfants. Les vieux gens avaient faims auparavant. Maintenant ils seront joyeux. Leur maison est très vieille aussi, même comme eux. Le vieux homme a une canne mais sa femme n'en a pas. Il y a un arbre dans la cour. On voit une fenêtre dans la maison et une porte. Leurs figures montrent qu'ils sont joyeux. Le chat est joyeux aussi.

## 11

Le vieil homme et la vieille femme regardent le panier plein de bonnes choses. Le chat aussi regarda le panier. Les petits garçons l'ont mis près de la porte de sorte que les vieilles gens le trouvassent quand ils sortent. Le vieil homme est très faible et sa femme aussi. Elle a l'air très douce. Les robes vous racontent que les deux personnes sont très pauvres.

Les garçons sont très bons pour l'homme et sa femme et ils ont beaucoup de joie en les regardant parce qu'ils aiment faire la bonne chose à ceux qui en ont besoin.

Le chat a l'air très mince mais c'est un bon companion aux vieilles gens.

L'étable est près de la maison mais il n'est pas en bon état. Le toit a commencé à tomber. Sur la terre est une casque.

## 12

Dans une maison à la campagne vivaient un vieillard et une vieillesse. Ils étaient très pauvre et un jour ils découvrent un . . . de beau à manger. Les petits enfants avaient mis là, et ils se sont cachés autour de la maison pour voyer si les vieillares amaient les bonbons. Il y avait dans la boîte de pain, de beurre, de viande, des pommes, des oranges et beaucoup d'autres choses. Les vieillards avaient un chat.

## 13

Un pauvre homme et sa femme ont vécu un fois dans une maison vieille. Dans l'hiver ils n'avaient pas assez pour les faire chauds et pour manger. Un jour dans le mois de décembre ils ont entendu un bruit dans la petite vestibule qui était devant la maison. Le pauvre vieux homme est allé à la porte suivi de sa femme et leur vieux chat. Il ouvrit la porte et dit à sa femme "vite, vite" parce qu'il y avait sur le plancher de la vestibule un petite boîte pleine des choses à manger. Le petite boîte avait été y placé par quelques enfants qui avait pitié pour les.

## 14

Il y a une pauvre femme et un pauvre homme qui avait un grand astonishment quand ils ouvre sa porte ils voient sur la gallery une boîte que contien

beaucoup des choses pour Noel. Il y a beaucoup des enfants regardant les et les enfants ressemblait heureux parce ils sont cachant de l'homme et femme. Peut être je pense que les enfants avaient mis la boîte sur la gallery pour la pouvre famille. Le chat qui est sur le gallery est heureux aussi et tous les personnes sont heureux.

## 15

Il était Noel et un pauvre vieux homme et sa femme avait rien à manger. Les enfants du village qui était très genereux avaient tout leur argent pour acheter ces deux vieux quelque bonnes choses pour manger. Dans la gravure on voit le vieux et sa femme à la porte de leur petite maison, regardant avec surprise le panier plein de bonnes choses pour manger. Même le chat veut savoir qu'est qu'il y a dans le panier. Et les enfants! on peut voir qu'ils sont très contents de voir leur cadeau si bien reçu.

## 16

Le jour de Noël un pauvre vieillard et sa femme reçurent un cadeau. Ils ne surent qui le leur avaient donné mais nous savons que deux petites filles et deux petits garçons avait mis le cadeau sur le seuil de la maison de les pauvres. Ils étaient bien heureux de voir qu'il y avait des personnes au monde qui pensent à ceux qui ne sont pas si heureux qu'eux-mêmes. Ce jour-là le vieillard et sa femme mangèrent le mieilleur dîner qu'ils avaient mangé depuis longtemps, car le cadeau qu'ils reçurent. . . .

## 17

Ce sont deux vieux personnages de la ville. Ils sont très pauvre, et à Noel les enfants leur ont donné une surprise. Ils ont pris un panier et mis dedans toutes les choses pour le dîner de Noel. Ils l'ont placé sur la gallerie, et l'y laissé. Puis ils se sont cachés au côté, et après l'homme et sa femme sont sortis. Ils ont vu le panier et fait des exclamations. Le chat regardait aussi, et il semblait très heureux; et les vieillards ont donné les merciments aux enfants, et au le Bon Dieu.

## 18

Dans cette graveure je vois des enfants et un homme vieux et une femme vieille. Ils sont regardant des provisions que les enfants ont leur donnés. Les enfants sont heureux parce les vieilles personnes sont heureux. L'homme et sa femme avait faim mais les enfants ont les donnés de nourriture.

## 19

## UN CADEAU DE NOEL

"Qu'est-ce que c'est cela!" crient ensemble un pauvre vieillard et sa femme, en sortant de leur pauvre maison pour aller à l'église. "Peut-être s'est un cadeau de Noel," suggère la vieille femme. "Mais je suis certain que ce n'est pas pour nous," répond le vieillard d'un ton faible, "car nous sommes bien trop pauvre pour recevoir de même. Mais en se tournant. . . ."

## 20

Dans un village il y avait un vieux homme et une vieille femme. Ils étaient très pauvres et ils n'avaient pas d'argent pour acheter de la nourriture. Ils mouraient de faim. Mais les enfants du village les aimaient beaucoup et chaque enfant a demandé à ses parents de lui donner quelques sous pour acheter un bon repas pour cet homme et sa femme. Un jour quand les. . .

## GERMAN

## 1

Einmal war es drei Knaben die auf dem Lande wohnten. Sie wünschten ein Haus to bauten und da ein Baum im Garten war beschlossen sie das Haus darauf zu bauten. Ein Knabe stieg den Baum auf. Aus Holz bauteten sie das Haus. Die Knabe mit dem Hut reichte sa Holz zu dem drei Knaben auf und sie machten die Tür und Fenster damit.

## 2

Die drei Knaben bauen ein Haus in einem Baum. Sie werden dort spielen wenn es vollendet werde. Das Haus ist nicht sehr gross, aber es ist genug gross für sie.

Sie freuen sich sehr dass sie das Haus bauen können.

Der Baum ist sehr gross. Er ist sehr hoch und auch sehr breit.

## 3

Drei Knaben machen ein Haus. Ein Knabe hat ein Hammer. Sie arbeiten gut. Ein Knabe tragt. . .

## 4

Eines Tages entschlossen drei glückliche Knaben ein Haus in einem Linden Baum zu bauen. Sie hatten die Geschichte "Die schweize Familie Robinson" gelesen, und wollten sehr dasselbe tun. Es war ein grosser Haufe Brette im Hofe. Sie setzten ein Leiter zu dem Baum und kletterten hinauf, und trugen die Bretter mit. Mit Nageln hammerten sie ein Boden, wo vier Aste. . .

## 5

Drei Knaben bauen ein kleines Haus auf einem Baum. Sa Haus ist aus Holz gemacht. Der Baum ist alt und hoch. Die Knaben sind vielleicht zehn oder elf Jahre alt. Einer der Knaben trägt eine Mütze. Das Haus hat viele Fenster und eine grosse Tür. Aber es hat nur ein Zimmer.

## 6

Drei Knaben baut ein Haus in dem Baum. Es ist in einem grossen Baum. Ein Knabe ist auf der Leiter und er gibt ein Brett zu ein der Knaben ober. Sie sind sehr eifrig und sehr glücklich. Es ist nur ein kleines Haus. Darin werden die Knaben spielen als sie es zum Ende gebracht haben. Es gibt sieben Fenster. Ein Knabe macht jetzt ein Fenster. Er hat eine Hammer. Bei seinen Füßen ist eine andere Hammer.



## 7

Das Bild schlägt Knaben vor, die ein Haus in den Bäumen bauen. An einer Seite des Baumes ist eine Leiter, an welcher steht ein Knabe, der ein Stück Holz einem anderen Junge gibt. Sie bauen wahrscheinlich das Spielhaus für ihre kleine Schwester so dass sie ihre Freundinnen darin unterhalten kann. In diesem Hause werden die kleinen Mädchen der Nachbarschaft mit ihren Puppen spielen, Tee trinken, und Kuchen essen. Dann wenn der Winter ankommt, werden sie das Spielhaus verlassen müssen und sich in ihren eigenen Häusern amüsieren. Das Spielhaus wird viele Fenster haben, einen Fussboden, auf welchem die Mädchen Teppichen stellen. Es wird Fenstervorhänger u.s.w.

## 8

Drei Knaben sind in dem Bild. Sie machen ein Haus in dem Baum. Sie sind kleinen Knaben. Sie sind Brüder nicht Freunde. Sie haben eine Schwester. Der Baum ist grosser. Es ist nicht ein kleiner Baum. Sie sind fleissig. Sie haben ein Vater und eine Mutter, ein Grossvater und eine Grossmutter. Sie sind glücklich. Sie sind nicht in die Schule. Sie machen nicht. Das Haus ist weiss nicht schwarz. Sie wohnen in kleinem rote Hause. Es ist die Sommerzeit nicht die Winterzeit. Sie haben ein grosser Hund. Es ist eine grosse Tier.

## 9

Drei jungen Knaben bauen einen Haus in dem Baum. Diese drei Knaben sind gute Freunde und sie haben gern zu spielen. Zwei von den Knaben sind hoch in dem Baum. Der andere reicht ein Stück Holz zu den Knaben. Sie bauen das Haus gut. Es wird Fenster und Türe haben. Als die Freunde es ganz fertiggebracht haben, werden sie darin wohnen. Es gibt Zweige darauf.

## 10

Die sind drei Knaben, die sind ein Haus in ein grossen Baum gebildet. Zwei von diesen sind an dem . . . von das Haus die anderer ist an ein . . . und gibt zu ihrer Kamerade ein Holz. Es ist Sommer denn die Knaben arbeiten mitaus. Ein von diesen trägt ein Hut an den Kopf. Sie haben fast ihren Haus gebildet, nur er eine kleine Holz für Wander gebraucht. Sie haben Stücke Holz an den . . . des Baumes geplätzt, so dass sie ihre Heimat erreichen können.

## 11

Es waren drei Spielkameraden die auf dem Lande wohnten. Am einem Morgen entschlossen sie sich ein Haus in einem alten Baume zu machen. Ein Knabe sollte die Leiter holen, ein andere sagte, dass er Holz bringen konnte und der dritte sollte die Geräte bringen um das kleines Haus zu machen. Also als sie alle diese Dinge zusammengebrachten hatten erst machten sie einen Fussboden für das Haus.

## 12

In dem Bilde sind zwei Knaben. Sie sehen sehr fleissig aus und sie bauen ein kleines Haus. Das Haus ist hoch in einem grossen Baume. Es wird aus Holz gebaut. Die Knaben haben grosse Bretter woraus sie machen das Haus.

In den heissen Sommer Tagen werden die Knaben im Hause sitzen. Sie werden mit den Vögeln sprechen können und sie werden die kühle Luft auf den Wangen fühlen. Es wird sehr angenehm im Hause sein und die Knaben werden sehr glücklich sein.

Das Bauen lernt die Knaben wie man macht grosse Häuser. Das Bauen ist eine der besten Sachen der Welt und es lernt die Knaben sehr viel und macht sie sehr fleissig auch.

Das Baum worauf sie bauen das Haus ist ein sehr grosser Baum. Es hat viele Aste und es muss sehr grosse Wurzel haben. Es sieht sehr stark aus weil es so breit ist.

Ich möchte mit den Knaben in das Haus wohnen während die Stadt heiss ist und während ich keine Bequemlichkeit finden kann.

### 13

Drei Knaben Fritz, Karl und Jacques hatten eine Baum mit grossen Zweigen gefunden. Sie wollten ein Haus zu bilden. Sie hat in die Baume gestiegen und sie begannen das Haus mit Teilen aus Holz zu bilden. Das Haus welche sie machten, hatte viele Fenster weil es war nicht viel Holz. Es war glücklich dass keiner der Knaben gefallen hat für die Baum höhe war. Fritz wollte im Hause zu schliefen aber seine Mutter hat ihm nich gelassen. Vielleicht sie war klug weil das Dachte. . . .

### 14

#### DAS HAUS IN DEN BAUMEN

Drei Jungen bauten ein Haus in den Bäumen. Einer schlug einen Nagel mit einem Röhre. Die zwei andere trugen ein grosz. . . . Der Baum war sehr gross und hatten viele Zweige und Blätter. Im Hause waren manche Fenstere, aber sie hatten keines Glas. Einer von der Junger trug die Mütze. Es war nicht warm in den Bäumen.

### 15

Hier haben wir drei Knaben die sehr fleissig sind. Sie bauen ein Haus in den Bäumen. Ein Knabe bringt das Holz womit sie das Haus bauen können. Ein anderer nimmt das Holz und gibt es zu noch einem anderen Knaben.

Das Haus wird freilich, sehr schön aussehen. Die Knaben werden viele fröhlichen Stunden darin verbringen.

### 16

Drei Knaben sind in diesem Bild. Sie sind in einem Baum. Sie Bauen ein Haus in dem Baum. Die Knaben sind nicht gros, aber sie sind klein. Der Baum ist gros und alt. Die jungen Knaben sind sehr fleissig. Die Hände der Knaben sind klein, aber sie bauen gut. Die Knaben sind drie Brüder. Ein Tier ist in dem Hause. Ich sehe fünf Fenster in dem Hause. Keine Mädchen sind in diesem Bild. Die Knaben sind acht Jahre alt. Es ist Sommer in dem Bild. Es ist nicht Winter.

### 17

Fleissigkeit ist ein sehr wertvolles Ding. Hier im Bild sieht man drei kleine Burschen, die sehr fleissig arbeiten. Sie bauen ein kleines Haus im Baum wo

sie sich vielleicht vielmahls begegnen werden und sprechen über den vielen Sachen die ein Jungesherz durchzucken. Sieh mahl den Ausdruck ins Gesicht des Junges der das Brett vom Knaben auf der Leiter nimmt. Was für ein Eifrigkeit, man dort sehen kann. Jener hat seine Beschäftigung. Der eine bring die Materialien, der Andere baut das Gebäude, während der dritte hilft ihm. Das brauch man im Leben haben; dass einer dem andern immer helfen soll. Wir sind alle Bruder und müssen einer dem andern helfen und nicht nür für sich kleren. So werden wir in einer schönen prächtigen herrlichen Welt leben; in einer Welt wo es ein Vergnügen ist und wir werden viel Gutes tun.

## 18

Die kleinen Knaben im Bild bilden ein Haus im Baume. Es ist fast fertig aber sie brauchen still Holz für einen Wand. Sie arbeiten sehr fleissig; der ein trägt Holz zu den anderen, und das Holz ist sehr schwer für den kleine Knaben. Zwei der Knaben haben den Hut abgenommen, der andere hat seinen auf dem Kopf.

## 19

In diesem Bild sind drei kleine Jungen, die ein Haus in einem hohen Baum bauen. Wann sie ihr Haus fertig bringen, werden sei darin spielen. Über ihnen ist die blaue Luft, und die Vögel singen zu ihnen. Ein von den Jungen hat in seiner Hand eine Stücke Holz, und der andere Junge mit schwarzem Haare, welcher der grösste ist, arbeitet mit hammer und nails. Der Haus im Baum hat mehrere grosse Fenster und eine Tür.

## 20

Drei kleine Jungen wünschten ein Haus zu machen vorin sie spielen konnten. Sie fanden einen grossen schatigen Baum und stiegen ihn ein. Sie arbeiteten lange fleissig und endlich begann ein kleines Haus mit Fenster zu scheinen. Sie machten es aus Holz. Sie brauchten die Hammer und Saw des Vaters. Sie dachten sie ein schöne Haus haben würden.

## SPANISH

## 1

Juan y María estaba un buen anciano dos que habitía en un anciano casa en el campesino. Los muchachos y los muchatias todos los quieria muchos y estaba aplicado por los.

## 2

Es la mañana del día de la Navidad cuando un viejo hombre y su esposa oyeron algún a la puerta de la casa y hallaron cuando ellos fueron a la puerta que los niños del pueblo les habían dejado una cesta de flores. Los viejos estaban muy sorprendidas y el gato también estaba interesado. Así los niños estaban contentos del resulto de su juego.

## 3

En una anciana casa que era casi no buena vivían un anciano hombre y su mujer. Eran muy. . . .

## 4

En la mañana de Navidad unos niños fueron a la casa de la pobre mujer Isabela, en la calle, Barcelona, 15, en la ciudad. Trajeron un presente por la pobre mujer en que estaba muchas dulces. Le pusieron en la puerta de la casa y se despidieron entonces. Cuando la pobre mujer y su marido veían. . . .

## 5

Los muchachos de Andalucía amaban mucho los viejos que vivían en la vieja casa a bordo del camino, y los viejos los amaban mucho también. Los viejos eran muy pobres y sus ropas estaban rotas, y algunas veces no tenían algo de comer.

Era la víspera de Navidad, y los muchachos habían decidido que ellos sorprenderían los pobres viejos. Compraron un turrón un majapán y otras muchas buenas cosas y los pusieron a la puerta de la casa de los viejos. Por la mañana. . . .

## 6

Los pequeños muchachos pusieron un . . . cerca la puerta. El viaje hombre y la viaje mujer han de tener marido y esposa. Sus cabellos eran blancos. Sus ropas eran . . . están o parecan ser feliz. Los muchachos réan a las viajes personas. Van a abrir el panier para ver que es en le.

## 7

Los muchachos del pueblo decidieron dar un regalo al pobre señor Morez y su estimable esposa, porque los pobres señores decían muchos cuentos todo el año a los muchachos.

Cuando llegó Navidad los muchachos compraron en una tienda algunas cosas. Pusieron las cosas que han comprado cerca la casa de los viejos señores.

En el día que viene los señores Morez abrieron la puerta y vieron las buenas cosas que los muchachos han poniendo para ellos. Senora Morez tomó las cosas. . . .

## 8

Había una vez un hombre y su esposa muy viejos y muy pobres. Le gustaban a ellos much los hijos y les decían muchos buenos cuentos. Los hijos les aman mucho. El hombre y la mujer vivían en una casa muy anciana porque estaban pobres. Los hijos querían pagar a los persones viejos por la bondad en decir cuentos. Todos los niños trabajaron y con lo que recibieron compraron frutas, flores y muchas buenos cosas a comer. Durante los pobres viejos persones estaban en la casa pusaron las cosas a la porte de la casa y se hid themselves.

## 9

En el cuatro hay un hombre y una mujer. Cerca de la galeria Hay cuarto ninos y ninas. La ropa de l'hombre y de la mujer han rogado. La casa est muy. . . .



## 10

## CUENTO DE NAVIDAD

Había una vez dos viejos qui vivieron en una casa muy pequeño y vieja. Son muy pobres. Un poco de muchachos pusieron una paquete cerca de la puerta de la casa de los viejos. Era la vispera de Navidad. En la Navidad los viejos vieron la paquete con mucho gusto, por que ellos supieron que él tuvo algunas cosas que pudieron comer. En que era turrón, mazapán y otro dulces que comieron desde luego. Los viejos son muy agradecidos por. . . .

## 11

Hay un viejo y un vieja vivant dans una casa vieja que estaban pobre. Algunos niños de esa parte los quisieron. Tenían también un chat. Estos pobres viejos tenían muy hambre y los niños los traigaron algunas buenas comidas. Los niños han cueros por la casa y los viejos abrien la cesca. Los viejos estaban muy contentos and den los niños muchas gracias. Había tambien alguna lecha por le chat. Los niños estaban contentos tambien.

Salieron en la pizasa. El viejo vestido pobremente la vieja con viejas zapatos.

## 12

Un pobre hombre y su mujer vivían en una casa en el campo. Habían muchos ninos en el lugar y venían todos los días para ver si pudieran ver a los viejos, porque estos eran muy buenos por los niños. Les amaban mucho y traian muchas frutas a los viejos. Un dia cuatro ninos vinieron temprano en la manana a la casa y como no habia nadie cerca de la casa, pusieron un . . . lleno de frutas y legumbres sobre. . . .

## 13

## CUENTO DE NAVEDAD

Un hombre y una mujer viven en una mesa. No sientan se riches. Quien los abron la puerta se viejan una. . . .

## 14

En el norte de espana vivía un viejo con su esposa y un viejo gato. En el verano trabajaba en una hacienda y ganaba poco dinero. Aunque ganaba bastante para vivir no podía comprar dulces sino solamente lo que necesitaba para vivir. Había cerca de su casa una huerta y el daba manzanas a los muchachos del pueblo. La víspera de Navidad se acostaron los dos pero no sabían de donde iban a obenir su comida de Navidad. La mañana, cuando se levantaron, oyeron unos golpes al puerto y cuando fueron a ella hallaron un pollo, unos legumbres y. . . .

## 15

En el cuadro hay un anciano hombre que tiene un batón en la mano. Con el anciano hombre es una viaje que tiene un ropa negro. Algunos hijos son los buscan, ver si ellos vin las buenoas cosas que los hijos haben puesto en le. Cerca la casa son algunos arboles y otro anciano casa.

## 16

En este cuento hablamos un viejo hombre y una vieja mujer. Están muy pobres porque el hombre es más viejo que trabajar y su esposa es también más vieja que poder ayudar a su marido. Los hijos de los vecinos conocen a esto. Ellos quieren ayudar a estos pobres viejos pero no saben lo que pueden hacer hasta que decidieron dar a estos pobres algunas cosas que comer.

En este cuento vimos los viejos hablando las cosas que comer delante de su casa. Ellos parecen ser muy pobres y muy viejos. Llevan ropas muy. . .

## 17

Veo un hombre y mujer pobres y ancianos. Vivían en una casa pequeño. Tienen hambres. Algunos muchachos les ven. . .

## 18

En el cuadro hay un pobre hombre y su mujer y están a la puerta de una casa. Algunos niños miran un regalo que alguien ha quedado para que los dos pobres obtengan algo comer. La mujer se sorprendió. Los zapatos de los dos no son buenos. La chaqueta del hombre es rota. Tiene el cepillo blanco. Hay en el cuadro también un árbol. Los niños tienen sobre la cabeza una gorra. En la tierra no hay mucho. La escena no es bella. Hay una ventana en la casa de estos dos viejos. La mujer se envuelta en un vieja manta. Hay un escalera cerca de la cestita de regalos. No hay algo muy bella en el cuadro. Los ojos. . .

## 19

## CUENTO DE NAVIDAD

Hay un hombre y una mujer, una muchacha y tres muchachos. También hay dos casas. El hombre y la mujer son ancianos. En una casa es un vientana y en otro hay una vientana también. En otro casa hay un porto.

## 20

Había una vez dos viejos, un hombre y su mujer. Eran muy pobres porque eran viejos y podían trabajar. Como no tenían mucho dinero tenían que comer poco.

Un día hallaron que no tenían dinero. Por un día no comieron ninguna cosa y tenían mucho hambre.

Pero había en este pueblo algunos niños muy amables. Ellos oyeron que los ancianos no tenían dinero y tuvieron que ir hambre. Como ellos tomaron todo su dinero y con ello compraron legumbres y frutas. En seguida los pusieron en un . . . y la pusieron delante de la casa de los pobres dos.

KEY FOR PRACTICE COMPOSITIONS<sup>1</sup>

No.	French	German	Spanish
1	10	9	5
2	5	7	8
3	7	3	2
4	9	9	5
5	11	11	7
6	13	8	4
7	13	12	8
8	6	5	6
9	12	10	2
10	10	4	7
11	14	8	5
12	9	11	7
13	11	5	5
14	8	8	8
15	12	10	4
16	14	8	6
17	13	11	4
18	7	9	7
19	16	10	4
20	15	8	8

<sup>1</sup>Do not refer to the key while rating the samples. Write your ratings on a separate sheet and compare them with the key afterward.

## A GENERAL INTELLIGENCE TEST

When the Canadian Committee on Modern Languages assigned problems for investigation a study of intelligence tests was not included. In the course of their work it became evident that considerable use was being made of intelligence tests in the Dominion although none had been standardized for Canadian students. Having at hand facilities for distributing tests, it was felt by the committee that they should avail themselves of the relations formed with educational authorities throughout Canada in order to secure as much data as possible for the standardization of a test suited to Canada. A test<sup>1</sup> was consequently prepared and administered to approximately 7,500 persons. This was a group test consisting of a battery of eight, six of which were new combinations of the various forms of the American Army Alpha test. The two tests not taken from the Army Alpha were the Otis proverb test and a specially devised test in reasoning. The test, as a whole, is an equivalent form of the general intelligence test<sup>2</sup> used in the survey of the school system of British Columbia, and is given here in full.

### GENERAL INTELLIGENCE TEST

#### TEST 1

Place the answer to each problem in the parenthesis after the problem. Use the side of this page to figure on if you need to. Time, 5 minutes.

- SAMPLES** { 1 How many are 5 men and 10 men?.....Answer ( 15 )  
2 If you walk 4 miles an hour for 3 hours, how far do  
you walk?.....Answer ( 12 )  
1 How many are 40 guns and 6 guns?.....Answer ( )  
2 If you save \$6 a month for 5 months, how much will you save?.. Answer ( )

<sup>1</sup>Prepared by Dr. Peter Sandiford, Ontario College of Education.

<sup>2</sup>*Survey of the School System*, by J. H. Putman and G. M. Weir, Victoria, B.C., 1925.



- 3 If 32 men are divided into squads of 8, how many squads will there be?.....Answer (    )
- 4 Mike had 11 cigars. He bought 3 more and then smoked 6. How many cigars did he have left?.....Answer (    )
- 5 A company advanced 7 miles and retreated 2 miles. How far was it then from its first position?.....Answer (    )
- 6 How many hours will it take a truck to go 65 miles at the rate of 5 miles an hour?.....Answer (    )
- 7 How many pencils can you buy for 30 cents at the rate of 2 for 5 cents?.....Answer (    )
- 8 A regiment marched 40 miles in five days. The first day they marched 9 miles, the second day 6 miles, the third 10 miles, the fourth 6 miles. How many miles did they march the last day?.....Answer (    )
- 9 If you buy 2 packages of tobacco at 8 cents each and a pipe for 65 cents, how much change should you get from a two-dollar bill?.....Answer (    )
- 10 If it takes 4 men 3 days to dig a 120-foot drain, how many men are needed to dig it in half a day?.....Answer (    )
- 11 A dealer bought some mules for \$2,000. He sold them for \$2,400, making \$50 on each mule. How many mules were there?.....Answer (    )
- 12 A rectangular bin holds 200 cubic feet of lime. If the bin is 10 feet long and 5 feet wide, how deep is it?.....Answer (    )
- 13 A recruit spent one-eighth of his spare change for post cards and twice as much for a box of letter paper, and then had \$2.00 left. How much money did he have at first?.....Answer (    )
- 14 If  $5\frac{1}{2}$  tons of bark cost \$33, what will  $3\frac{1}{2}$  tons cost?.....Answer (    )
- 15 A ship has provisions to last her crew of 400 men 6 months. How long would it last 1,600 men?.....Answer (    )
- 16 If an aeroplane goes 300 yards in 10 seconds, how many feet does it go in a fifth of a second?.....Answer (    )
- 17 A U-boat makes 8 miles an hour under water and 20 miles on the surface. How long will it take to cross a 100-mile channel, if it has to go two-fifths of the way under water?.....Answer (    )
- 18 If 134 squads of men are to dig 3,618 yards of trench, how many yards must be dug by each squad?.....Answer (    )
- 19 A certain division contains 5,000 artillery, 15,000 infantry, and 1,000 cavalry. If each branch is expanded proportionately until there are in all 23,100 men, how many will be added to the artillery?.....Answer (    )
- 20 A commission house which had already supplied 1,897 barrels of apples to a cantonment delivered the remainder of its stock to 37 mess halls. Of this remainder each mess hall received 54 barrels. What was the total number of barrels supplied?.....Answer (    )

DO NOT TURN OVER THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

Score (number right).....

## TEST 2

Read each proverb, find the statement that explains it, and put the number of that statement in the parenthesis before the proverb. For example, Statement 3 explains the first proverb in Group I. Therefore 3 is placed in the first parenthesis. Time, 5 minutes.

**Proverbs (Group 1)**

- SAMPLE** ( 3 ) Make hay while the sun shines.  
 ( ) A drowning man will grasp at straws.  
 ( ) A stitch in time saves nine.  
 ( ) Rats desert a sinking ship.  
 ( ) In a calm sea every man is a pilot.  
 ( ) Destroy the lion while it is young.  
 ( ) He who would eat the kernel must crack the nut.  
 ( ) One swallow does not make a summer.  
 ( ) People who live in glass houses must not throw stones.  
 ( ) A mouse must not think to cast a shadow like an elephant.

**Statements to Explain Proverbs in Group 1**

1. It pays to attend to troubles before they get worse.
2. Leadership is easy when all goes well.
3. Make the best of your opportunities.
4. Those who would reap rewards must work for them.
5. It pays to do only one thing at a time.
6. Desperate people cling to absurd hopes.
7. False friends flee from us in disaster.
8. Weed out bad habits before they are too firmly established.
9. It is best to be silent when there is nothing to say.
10. Those who have faults should not criticize others.
11. Do not attempt the impossible.
12. A single sign is not convincing.

**Proverbs (Group 2)**

- ( ) Every rose has its thorn.  
 ( ) A tree is known by its fruits.  
 ( ) All is not gold that glitters.  
 ( ) Where there is much smoke there must be some fire.  
 ( ) No wind can do him good who steers for no port.  
 ( ) Plant the crab tree where you will, it will not bear sweet apples.  
 ( ) A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.  
 ( ) Too many cooks spoil the broth.  
 ( ) Meddle not with dirt—some of it will stick to you.  
 ( ) It is a long road that has no turn.

**Statements to Explain Proverbs in Group 2**

1. Environment will not change one's nature.
2. There is no happiness without its pain or sorrow.
3. Appearances are often deceptive.
4. It is better to be content with little than to gamble for more.
5. One cannot have the same luck forever.
6. No object can be attained without some sacrifice.
7. Deeds show the man.
8. We cannot help those who have no object in life.
9. Suspicions usually have some basis.
10. Association with evil is sure to leave its effect.
11. Who undertakes too much accomplishes little.
12. Division of responsibility brings poor results.

DO NOT TURN OVER THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

Score (number right) .....

**TEST 3**

If the two words of a pair mean the same, or nearly the same, draw a line under same. If they mean the opposite, or nearly the opposite, draw a line under opposite. Time, 2 minutes.

<b>SAMPLES</b>	{ good—bad.....	same ..	<u>opposite</u>
	{ little—small.....	<u>same</u>	opposite
1	slim—slender.....	same ..	opposite 1
2	asleep—awake.....	same ..	opposite 2
3	comfort—console.....	same ..	opposite 3
4	pigmy—dwarf.....	same ..	opposite 4
5	beg—entreat.....	same ..	opposite 5
6	extinguish—quench.....	same ..	opposite 6
7	cheerful—melancholy.....	same ..	opposite 7
8	accept—reject.....	same ..	opposite 8
9	concave—convex.....	same ..	opposite 9
10	lax—strict.....	same ..	opposite 10
11	assert—maintain.....	same ..	opposite 11
12	champion—advocate.....	same ..	opposite 12
13	adapt—conform.....	same ..	opposite 13
14	debase—exalt.....	same ..	opposite 14
15	dissension—harmony.....	same ..	opposite 15
16	defile—purify.....	same ..	opposite 16
17	apprehensive—fearful.....	same ..	opposite 17

18	sterile—fertile.....	same..opposite	18
19	chasm—abyss.....	same—opposite	19
20	sombre—gloomy.....	same..opposite	20
21	recline—stand.....	same..opposite	21
22	degenerate—deteriorate.....	same..opposite	22
23	martial—civil.....	same..opposite	23
24	nonchalance—anxiety.....	same..opposite	24
25	torpor—stupor.....	same..opposite	25
26	decadence—decline.....	same..opposite	26
27	nullify—annul.....	same..opposite	27
28	ambiguous—equivocal.....	same..opposite	28
29	agglomerate—scatter.....	same..opposite	29
30	plenary—complete.....	same..opposite	30
31	urbanity—civility.....	same..opposite	31
32	proclivity—inclination.....	same..opposite	32
33	putrid—fœtid.....	same..opposite	33
34	impecunious—opulent.....	same..opposite	34
35	choleric—phlegmatic.....	same..opposite	35
36	diatribe—invective.....	same..opposite	36
37	obdurate—stubborn.....	same..opposite	37
38	profligate—ascetic.....	same..opposite	38
39	preamble—peroration.....	same..opposite	39
40	pertinacious—obstinate.....	same..opposite	40

DO NOT TURN OVER THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

Right.....Wrong.....Score (Right—Wrong) = .....

#### TEST 4

Look at each sentence. Think what it would be if the words were put in the right order. If it would be true, draw a line under the word true. If it would be false, draw a line under the word false. Time, 2½ minutes.

**SAMPLES** { a eats cow grass..... true..false  
 { horses feathers have all..... true.. false

1	dogs meat eat.....	<u>true</u> ..false	1
2	see are with to eyes.....	<u>true</u> ..false	2
3	trées the fish in swim.....	<u>true</u> ..false	3
4	harness paper of made is.....	<u>true</u> ..false	4
5	months warmest are summer the.....	<u>true</u> ..false	5
6	wood made carpets are of always.....	<u>true</u> ..false	6
7	known elephant animal an is smallest the.....	<u>true</u> ..false	7



8	water cork on float will not.	true..false	8
9	sounds people some loud annoy	true..false	9
10	thunders rains when it always it.	true..false	10
11	food is tobacco as valuable a not.	true..false	11
12	trees roses sea and in grow the.	true..false	12
13	pays cautious it be to often.	true..false	13
14	a general not major a and rank same the of are	true..false	14
15	true bought cannot friendship be.	true..false	15
16	never deeds rewarded be should good.	true..false	16
17	will live bird no forever.	true..false	17
18	gases the in Iroquois fighting used poisonous.	true..false	18
19	happiness source of always a crime is.	true..false	19
20	men misfortune have good never.	true..false	20
21	bell most telephones have attached a.	true..false	21
22	tools valuable is for sharp making steel.	true..false	22
23	brings avarice man friends a.	true..false	23
24	due sometimes calamities are accident to.	true..false	24
25	seen can the moon nights not be some.	true..false	25
26	forget trifling friends grievances never.	true..false	26
27	and emotions sorrow similar grief are.	true..false	27
28	feeling is of painful exaltation the.	true..false	28
29	cardinal not cultivated virtues the be should.	true..false	29
30	begin a and apple acorn an words with the.	true..false	30

DO NOT TURN OVER THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

Right.....Wrong.....Score (Right - Wrong) = .....

### TEST 5

In the lines below, each number is derived in a certain way from the numbers coming before it. Study out what way this is in each line, and then write on the dotted lines the two numbers that should come next. Time, 2 minutes.

<b>SAMPLES</b>	2	4	6	8	10	12	..14..	16....
	28	25	22	19	16	13	..10..	7....
	6	9	12	15	18	21	.....	.....
	21	18	16	13	11	8	.....	.....
	1	2	4	8	16	32	.....	.....
	3	4	6	9	13	18	.....	.....
	25	25	21	21	17	17	.....	.....
	12	14	13	15	14	16	.....	.....
	29	28	26	23	19	14	.....	.....
	15	16	14	17	13	18	.....	.....
	21	18	16	15	12	10	.....	.....
	3	6	8	16	18	36	.....	.....

WHEN YOU FINISH TEST 5 GO ON TO TEST 6

TEST 6

Fill in the conclusions that can be correctly drawn from the given facts in each Set, as shown in the sample conclusion of Set 1. Do not guess. This is a problem in reasoning. Use the margin of this page to figure on if you care to. Time, 8 minutes.

Given Facts	Conclusions
	Therefore—
Mary is younger than Norah.	Kate is . . . older than . . . Lily ( <b>SAMPLE</b> ).
Kate is older than Norah.	Primrose is . . . . . Kate.
Mary is older than Lily.	Norah is . . . . . Lily.
Norah is as old as Primrose.	Mary is . . . . . Lily.

SET II

	Therefore—
George is darker than Harry.	Leslie is . . . . . Malcolm.
Norman is darker than Leslie.	George is . . . . . Norman.
Harry is as dark as Malcolm.	Kenneth is . . . . . Malcolm.
Norman is fairer than Malcolm.	Norman is . . . . . Leslie.
Kenneth is fairer than Leslie.	Harry is . . . . . Kenneth.

SET III

	Therefore—
A is longer than F.	A is . . . . . B.
B is longer than E.	F is . . . . . C.
F is equal to B.	E is . . . . . H.
C is longer than A.	D is . . . . . G.
H is equal to C.	G is . . . . . E.
A is shorter than G.	H is . . . . . F.
D is longer than H.	A is . . . . . D.
G is shorter than C.	

DO NOT TURN OVER THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

Test 5. Score (Number right) . . . . .

Test 6. Score (Number right) . . . . .

TEST 7

In each of the lines below, the first two words bear a certain relation to each other. Notice that relation, and draw a line under the one word in heavy type which has the same relation to the third word that the second has to the first. Time, 3 minutes.

Samples	Sky—blue::grass— <u>table</u> <u>green</u> warm big
	Fish—swims::man— <u>paper</u> time <u>walks</u> girl
	day—night::white— <u>red</u> <u>black</u> clear pure

1	bird—sings::dog—fire barks snow flag.....	1
2	eat—bread::drink—water iron lead stones.....	2
3	father—son::mother— <b>aunt</b> nephew daughter sister.....	3
4	heehaw—donkey::bow-wow—hen cat speech dog.....	4
5	engineer—locomotive::chauffeur—drive auto horse wagon.....	5
6	water—fish::air—spark man blame breathe.....	6
7	white—black::good—time clothes mother bad.....	7
8	boy—man::lamb—sheep dog shepherd wool.....	8
9	roof—house::hat—button shoe straw head.....	9
10	camp—safe::battle—win dangerous field fight.....	10
11	quinine—bitter::sugar—cane sweet salt beets.....	11
12	tiger—wild::cat—dog mouse tame pig.....	12
13	legs—man::wheels—spokes carriage go tire.....	13
14	north—south::east—north west south east.....	14
15	feather—float::rock—ages hill sink break.....	15
16	egg—bird::seed—grow plant crack germinate.....	16
17	dig—trench::build—run house spade bullet.....	17
18	agree—quarrel::friend—comrade need mother enemy.....	18
19	palace—king::hut—peasant cottage farm city.....	19
20	cloud—burst—shower::cyclone—bath breeze destroy West.....	20
21	pitcher—milk::vase—flowers pitcher table pottery.....	21
22	blonde—brunette::light—heavy electricity dark girl.....	22
23	abundant—cheap::scarce—costly plentiful common gold.....	23
24	polite—impolite::pleasant—agreeable disagreeable man face....	24
25	mayor—city::general—private navy army soldier.....	25
26	establish—begin::abolish—slavery wrong abolition end.....	26
27	December—January::last—least worst month first.....	27
28	giant—dwarf::large—big monster queer small.....	28
29	engine—caboose::beginning—commence cabin end train.....	29
30	dismal—cheerful::dark—sad stars night bright.....	30
31	Caucasian—English::Mongolian—Chinese Indian negro yellow...	31
32	Ontario—Canada::part—hair China Quebec whole.....	32
33	esteem—despise::friends—Quakers enemies lovers men.....	33
34	abide—stay::depart—come hence leave late.....	34
35	abundant—scarce::cheap—buy costly bargain nasty.....	35
36	mountain—valley::genius—idiot write think brain.....	36
37	clock—time::thermometer—cold weather temperature mercury.	37
38	fear—anticipation::regret—vain memory express resist.....	38
39	hope—cheer::despair—grave repair death depression.....	39
40	dismal—dark::cheerful—laugh bright house gloomy.....	40

DO NOT TURN OVER THIS PAGE UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO

Score (number right)....

## TEST 8

In each of the sentences below, you have four choices for the last word. Only one is correct. Draw a line under the one of these four words which completes the sentence correctly. Time, 4 minutes.

**SAMPLES** { People **hear** with the **eyes** ears nose mouth  
France is in Europe Asia Africa Australia

- 1 The **Holstein** is a kind of **cow** horse sheep goat..... 1
- 2 **Rio Janeiro** is a city of **Spain** Argentina Portugal Brazil..... 2
- 3 The **Wyandotte** is a kind of **horse** fowl cattle granite..... 3
- 4 **Cribbage** is played with **rackets** mallets dice cards..... 4
- 5 The **topaz** is usually **red** yellow blue green..... 5
- 6 The **Delco System** is used in **plumbing** filing ignition cataloguing..... 6
- 7 **Irving Cobb** is famous as a **baseball player** actor writer artist.. 7
- 8 **Shoes** are made by **Swift & Co.** Smith & Wesson W. L. Douglas Babbit Co..... 8
- 9 **Gloria Swanson** is known as a **suffragist** singer movie actress writer..... 9
- 10 "**The flavour lasts**" is an "**ad**" for **chewing-gum** drink health food fruit..... 10
- 11 **Country Gentleman** is a kind of **wheat** corn hay oats..... 11
- 12 **Kale** is a **fish** lizard vegetable snake..... 12
- 13 **Rosa Bonheur** is famous as a **poet** painter composer sculptor.. 13
- 14 **Tokio** is a city of **India** China Egypt Japan..... 14
- 15 **Pearls** are obtained from **mines** elephants reefs oysters..... 15
- 16 **Rodin** is famous as a **poet** painter sculptor composer..... 16
- 17 The **chameleon** is a **bird** reptile insect fish..... 17
- 18 The **thyroid** is in the **shoulder** neck head abdomen..... 18
- 19 **Crisco** is a **patent medicine** disinfectant tooth-paste food product..... 19
- 20 An **aspen** is a **machine** fabric tree drug..... 20
- 21 The **howitzer** is a kind of **musket** sword cannon pistol..... 21
- 22 The **multigraph** is a kind of **typewriter** pencil copying-machine phonograph..... 22
- 23 **Maroon** is a **food** fabric drink colour..... 23
- 24 The **xylophone** is used in **lithography** music stenography book-binding..... 24
- 25 **Steinmetz** was most famous in **science** politics literature war... 25
- 26 The author of "**Barrack-room Ballads**" is **Poe** Stevenson Hawthorne Kipling..... 26
- 27 The number of a **Zulu's** legs is **two** four six eight..... 27



28	<b>Air</b> and <b>gasolene</b> are mixed in the <b>accelerator carburetor gear-case differential</b> .....	28
29	The <b>spark-plug</b> belongs in the <b>crank-case manifold carburetor cylinder</b> .....	29
30	<b>Denim</b> is a <b>dance food fabric drink</b> .....	30
31	<b>Becky Sharp</b> appears in <b>Vanity Fair Romola The Christmas Carol Henry IV</b> .....	31
32	<b>Blackstone</b> is most famous in <b>law literature science religion</b> ....	32
33	<b>Habeas corpus</b> is a term used in <b>medicine law theology pedagogy</b>	33
34	<b>Ensilage</b> is a term used in <b>fishing athletics farming hunting</b> ....	34
35	<b>Slice</b> is a term used in <b>bowling golf tennis football</b> .....	35
36	A <b>puck</b> is used in <b>tennis football hockey golf</b> .....	36
37	The <b>volt</b> is used in measuring <b>electricity windpower rain fall water power</b> .....	37
38	The <b>Cooper-Hewitt lamp</b> uses the <b>vapour of gasolene mercury tungsten alcohol</b> .....	38
39	<b>Bile</b> is made in the <b>spleen kidneys stomach liver</b> .....	39
40	A <b>regular five-sided figure</b> is <b>scalene rhomboid equilateral elliptical</b> .....	40

WHEN YOU FINISH TURN TO PAGE ONE

Score (number right).....

In publishing the results of this testing the Committee express no opinion upon the validity or reliability of the test. They merely record the data obtained in order that they may be at the disposition of any one who wishes to experiment further with this test or with similar ones.

Table 1 gives the distribution of scores, the medians, the upper and lower quartiles and the number of cases on which they are based. Attention must be called to the small number of cases at certain levels, that is to say, the 9 and 10 year group and the 19-23 year group. It is not likely that the sample tested can be considered a complete random sample of the population of that age. Figure 9 is based on the data of table 16, and shows graphically the total range, the upper and lower quartiles and the curve of growth from year to year. This figure also shows very clearly the overlapping of abilities not

only by means of the total range but also for the middle fifty per cent. at each level. The irregularity of the growth curve at the 19 and 20 year level indicates the unreliability of the figures for these ages. The depression

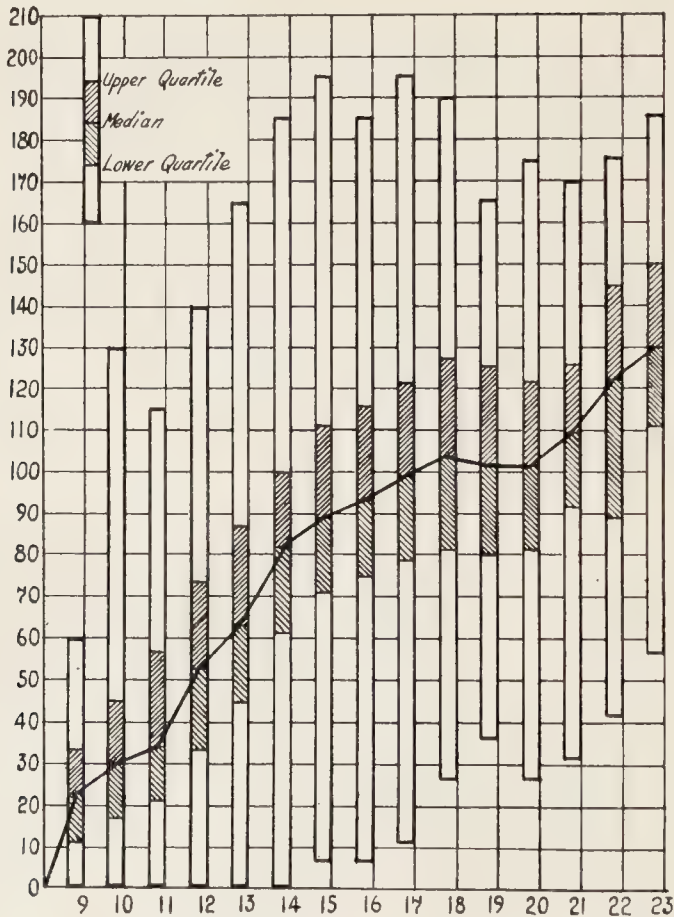


FIG. 9.—GROWTH CURVE IN INTELLIGENCE

in the curves here is probably due to the inclusion at this point of a group of cases of rather poor calibre. The sharp upward pitch of the curve at the 21 year level is due to the inclusion of a group of college graduates.

The raw scores on this test as they are given in table 16 are of very little use for comparative purposes and for

that reason it was felt necessary to use one of the many methods that have been proposed for scaling mental tests. The three most promising methods that have been devised are the percentile scale, the age scale and the T scale. It is unnecessary to discuss here the merits and defects of these different methods, but it may be stated that the T scale is superior to the others in many points. It scales the total score, at the same time allowing each test element to affect the scale score. Its units are equal, in the generally accepted sense, at all points on the scale and it covers a wide range of ability which may be extended if necessary. The age scale has had a decided practical advantage over the T scale by permitting the computation of quotients, such as intelligence quotients, reading quotients, accomplishment quotients, but a procedure<sup>1</sup> has been devised whereby the T scale alone can secure these special advantages in a more economical way than the age scale. For this, as well as for other reasons, it was decided to construct a T scale<sup>2</sup> on the data in table 16. The T scale is usually constructed on 12 year old children, but in this case it seemed preferable to use the 15 year group as the basis for the following reasons:

1. The 15 year group gives a better distribution.
2. The 15 year group shows a wider range.
3. The 15 year group has a sufficiently large number of cases to make the score values reliable.

The scale will be known then as a T 15 scale. Table 17 gives the key for the direct reading of the raw scores on the intelligence test into T 15 scale scores. When there are but few items it is customary to take the number of

<sup>1</sup>McCall, Wm. A., *How to Experiment in Education*, pp. 102-3.

<sup>2</sup>The T scale given in Tables 17 to 19 was constructed by E. D. MacPhee, Associate Professor of Psychology, University of Toronto.

pupils having 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, etc., questions correct. This will give fairly close steps on the T scale, whereas by taking class intervals of five marks the steps are about two T's. However, as the exactness gained in this way would hardly compensate for the increase of labour involved, class intervals were used and considered as a group of persons making identical scores. Columns one and five of table 17 may be used to transmute the intelligence test scores in T 15 units. Thus a person having an intelligence test score of 96-100 will be assigned a T 15 score of 55.

The second problem is to get something that approximates a measure of brightness. In age scales the I.Q. provides this measure. In T scales the measure is called Bi (brightness in intelligence). Ti (total intelligence) is merely a T score on some intelligence test. A pupil's Ti is an absolute score which should increase with maturity. His Bi is a relative score which, like the I.Q., should remain unchanged throughout his life, if the assumption that inherited intellectual brightness is constant, is true.

Table 18 gives the correction scores for each age. These corrections, which are found in the last row of table 18, when added algebraically to the T score, give the brightness score, *i.e.*, the relative brightness of the pupil to other pupils. The median Bi is 50 and the hypothetical range is from zero to one hundred. The pupil with a Bi of 60 or 70 would be considered a bright child—with a Bi of less than 40, a dull child.

The B corrections or rather the age intervals change from year to year, and it is advisable, therefore, to interpolate for shorter periods of time. In table 19 these interpolations have been made. If one wishes then to obtain a Bi for any pupil, it is necessary to look up the



TABLE 17

T 15 SCALE

1,224 PUPILS

Class Interval No. correct	Number of 15 year old pupils	Number exceeding plus half those reaching	Per cent. exceeding plus half those reaching	Assigned T 15 score
0	0	1224	100	0
1-5	1	1223.5	99.959	17
6-10	4	1221	99.75	22
11-15	2	1218	99.51	24
16-20	3	1215.5	99.30	25
21-25	5	1211.5	98.98	27
26-30	16	1201	98.12	29
31-35	15	1185.5	96.85	31
36-40	18	1169	95.50	33
41-45	44	1138	92.97	35
46-50	41	1095.5	89.50	37
51-55	46	1052	85.95	39
56-60	58	1000	81.70	41
61-65	61	940.5	76.84	43
66-70	81	869.5	71.03	45
71-75	81	788.5	64.42	46
76-80	85	705.5	57.64	48
81-85	86	620	50.65	50
86-90	82	536	43.79	52
91-95	70	460	37.58	53
96-100	70	390	31.04	55
101-105	66	322	26.30	56
106-110	57	260.5	21.28	58
111-115	47	208.5	17.03	60
116-120	39	165.5	13.52	61
121-125	31	130.5	10.66	62
126-130	32	99	8.09	64
131-135	21	72.5	5.92	66
136-140	16	54	4.41	67
141-145	15	38.5	3.14	68
146-150	12	25	2.04	70
151-155	3	19	1.55	71
156-160	8	12	.98	73
161-165	2	7	.57	75
166-170	4	4	.33	77
171-175	0	2	.16	79
176-180	0	2	.16	79
181-185	1	1.5	.12	80
186-190	1	.5	.04	83
191-195	0	0		86

TABLE 19

SHOWING CORRECTIONS OF T SCORES TO B SCORES ACCORDING TO AGE OF PUPIL

Chronological Age		Add to T 15 Score	Chronological Age		Add to T 15 Score
Years	Months		Years	Months	
9	0	46	15	8	-3
9	2	44	15	10	-4
9	4	43	16	0	-4.5
9	6	41	16	2	-5
9	8	39	16	4	-5.5
9	10	37	16	6	-6
10	0	36	16	8	-6.5
10	2	35	16	10	-6.5
10	4	34	17	0	-7
10	6	34	17	2	-7.5
10	8	33	17	4	-8
10	10	32	17	6	-8.5
11	0	31	17	8	-9
11	2	29	17	10	-9.5
11	4	28	18	0	-10
11	6	26	18	2	-11
11	8	25	18	4	-13
11	10	23	18	6	-15
12	0	22	18	8	-16
12	2	21	18	10	-17
12	4	19	19	0	-18
12	6	18	19	2	-18
12	8	17	19	4	-18
12	10	16	19	6	-18
13	0	15	19	8	-18
13	2	14	19	10	-18
13	4	12	20	0	-17
13	6	11	20	2	-18
13	8	9	20	4	-20
13	10	8	20	6	-22
14	0	7	20	8	-23
14	2	6	20	10	-24
14	4	5	21	0	-25.5
14	6	3	21	4	-27.5
14	8	2	21	8	-29.5
14	10	1	22	0	-31
15	0	0	22	4	-32
15	2	-1	22	8	-33
15	4	-2	23	0	-33.5
15	6	-2			

child's chronological age at the time of taking the test. In table 19 find the correction number and add it algebraically to the T score. Let us take two typical cases. Let us suppose a child of 11 years 6 months has 54 questions right and a child of 17 years 6 months has the same number correct. Since their scores fall in the same class interval (see table 16) they will be assigned the same T score, 39. Obviously they are not of the same brightness. In table 19 we find the B correction for 11 years 6 months to be 26 which, added to 39, gives a Bi of 65. In the case of the older child of 17 years 6 months the B correction is found in table 19 to be  $-8.5$  which, added algebraically to 39, gives a Bi of 30.5. The younger child then is more than twice as bright as the older, since T scores are supposed to be directly comparable with each other quantitatively.

This T 15 scale has very little reliability in the extreme ranges, that is to say, in the 9 year group, possibly in the 10 and in the 19-23 year group. There are few cases in each of these groups and, as has already been stated, the sample tested is not likely a complete random sample of the population of that age. However, the T scale method is as reliable as any other since the error is primarily one of sampling rather than of statistical assumption.

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